

# THE SOCIAL STUDIES



*Continuing*

The Historical Outlook

Volume XXV, Number 3

March, 1934

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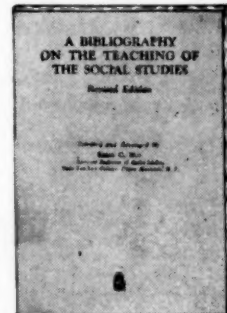
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# The Social Studies

*Continuing The Historical Outlook*

VOLUME XXV, NUMBER 3

MARCH, 1934

## Revisionist Interpretations of Stephen A. Douglas and Popular Sovereignty

HENRY CLYDE HUBBART  
*Ohio Wesleyan University*

For seventy-five years the Douglas controversy has continued. Was he a "Northern man with Southern principles," unethical and ambitious, ready to involve the country in uncalled-for agitation merely to serve his desire for the presidency? Was he, on the other hand, a lover of the Union, a Websterian statesman following an independent course that antagonized now Northern and now Southern men? Or—a third alternative—was he a Western party leader, with human frailties and human ambitions, who, through the medium of his section and his party, boldly and in the main consistently attempted to work out creditable national policies? Likewise the doctrine of popular sovereignty for the territories of Kansas and Nebraska—was it a Democratic "dodge" on the slavery question, or, worse still, a part of a pro-slavery plot? Or was it a Western doctrine, part and parcel of the great expansionist movement of the day, free soil in tendency and as creditable in plan and operation as the Republican Wilmot proviso would have been if it had been adopted? These are questions that have been asked ever since the Kansas-Nebraska Bill was enacted in 1854.

The first interpretation of Douglas and his doctrine came from the pen of his enemies, Salmon P. Chase and others, who, in the *Appeal of the Independent Democrats*, bitterly attacked the motives of Douglas and predicted the dire results that would accrue from the opening of Kansas and Nebraska to popular sovereignty. To allow the possibility of slavery in this district and to repeal the time-honored Missouri Compromise, was to set the country in an uproar; indeed it was nothing less than the deed of a politician seeking the presidency and sacrificing the interests of the people to the "mere hazards of a presidential game." It

was all an atrocious plot to convert vast unoccupied spaces into a "dreary region of despotism inhabited by master and slaves."<sup>1</sup> Certain discerning men in "the fifties" saw decidedly different possibilities in popular sovereignty, but their views did not get into the histories.

It was the extreme anti-slavery feeling in the North and East so thoroughly aroused by Douglas' bill, played upon by the reckless and bitter statements in the *Appeal* and coincident with the desire of the East and the region of the great lakes for prestige and power, that was to set the standard of historical interpretation for fifty or sixty years after 1854. James Ford Rhodes, in his great history published in the nineties, repeats with little modification the bitter charges of Chase and his colleagues. To Rhodes the *Appeal* expressed "earnest feeling" and related "truthful history."<sup>2</sup> His was essentially the controversial view; he followed the usual method of analyzing Douglas' "motives"; he did not approach his problem from the point of view of the West; the North-South theme still monopolized the writing of United States history. It must be added that the most valid point in all these older interpretations is that Douglas did not sense the magnitude of the anti-slavery feeling in the country.

About fifteen years after Rhodes, Professors Frank H. Hodder and P. Orman Ray made significant contributions to this subject, especially to the problem of the origins of the Kansas-Nebraska act. Although their views were somewhat conflicting (we all remember the forum discussion at the joint meeting of the American Historical and Mississippi Valley Historical Association), they may for our purpose be grouped together as opening up a new method of approach to this sub-



ject and as revealing new material. They reflect newer, more thorough research methods, a deeper use of sources, and greater knowledge of local history. They break from the time-honored North-South theme; to them the great theme of Western expansion and its reflex influence in our history is the key that unlocks the secrets of this question. The motives of Douglas are of secondary importance.

Ray takes us from the halls of Congress and puts us in touch with local conditions, with Western and particularly with Missouri politics. The motives that actuated the passage of the bill and the antagonisms involved in it are first seen in the Missouri senatorial contest between Thomas Hart Benton and David R. Atchison. Atchison, more than any other person, seems to be responsible for the repeal of the Missouri Compromise.<sup>3</sup> Hodder emphasizes the agitation for a transcontinental railroad as being the factor that more than any other brought on the bill. With him the Western expansion theme assumes major proportions, Douglas being the typical, aggressive Western expansionist.<sup>4</sup>

Let us take up the work of two other historians. Professor William O. Lynch of Indiana University, in 1918, wrote an article that marks an advance in Douglas historiography. The *Appeal of the Independent Democrats* is called unsound and untrue, and the free soil possibilities in popular sovereignty are suggested. Douglas is pointed out as being not greatly different from Lincoln in his views on the question of slavery in the territories and even of negro equality. Douglas was a man with human frailties of course, but he was a sincere lover of the Union, "courageous, enthusiastic, brilliant and generous."<sup>5</sup> Another historian, Albert J. Beveridge, in his remarkable synthetic treatment of Lincoln, Douglas, and the turbulent Western politics of "the fifties," brings together the findings of Hodder, Ray, and others, and adds a dozen side lights of interpretation made possible by his extensive facilities for gathering illuminating local items. He flatly rejects Rhodes' interpretation of the *Appeal*, rescues Douglas from several of the damaging charges against him, and makes the important suggestion that Douglas did not think that slavery would grow up in Kansas and Nebraska.<sup>6</sup>

It is the object of the writer of this article to carry the revisionist interpretation still further; to point out that Douglas himself always believed that the West would become free; that popular sovereignty proved to be only a little less free soil in tendency than the drastic Wilmot proviso itself; that Douglas had Republican support in his fight against Buchanan and the Lecompton constitution

and even against Lincoln in 1858, and that—most remarkable of all—in the election of 1860, Republicans in certain circles made use of his doctrine of popular sovereignty to help elect Lincoln. Republicanism in squatter sovereignty garb!

We have clear proof that Douglas personally believed that freedom would come to all the territories of the West. In his speech in the Senate on the Compromise of 1850 he pointed out repeatedly the forces at work in favor of freedom in California, Oregon, New Mexico, and even in large parts of Texas. From the time of the adoption of the Constitution, he said, "the cause of freedom has steadily and firmly advanced while slavery has receded." The vast territory west of the Mississippi he saw filling up with a hardy enterprising population out of which he expected seventeen free states to be formed whether Congress prohibited slavery or not. Popular sovereignty to him was a Western fair-and-square method, an appeal to local self determination. Pointing out that nature and the peoples' choice would bring freedom to all Western lands, he was heartily in accord with Webster's seventh of March speech on this question. To him as to Webster it was idle to reaffirm an ordinance of nature and to reenact the will of God.<sup>7</sup>

In the debate on the Kansas-Nebraska bill, he repeated these statements with great emphasis. "Let me ask you," he said, "where have you succeeded in excluding slavery by an act of Congress from one inch of American soil?" He went as far as to state that the Ordinance of 1787 had had no determining effect. "The inhabitants [of Oregon] prohibited slavery by unanimous vote. . . . The people [of California] formed a state constitution and then prohibited slavery." After 1850, in spite of the fact that the governments of Utah and New Mexico were established without any prohibition, the years rolled on and the people did not establish slavery. And the Nebraska territory—"when settlers rush in, when labor becomes plenty and therefore cheap, in that climate with its productiveness, it is worse than folly to think of its being a slave-holding country. I do not believe there is a man in Congress who thinks it could be permanently a slave-holding country."<sup>8</sup> All the evils of border warfare in Kansas must not close our eyes to the fact that Kansas was destined to become free. We must recognize that those evils were not all due to popular sovereignty. They are to be accounted for partly by Buchanan's ill-advised executive interference and by the fact that confusion is apt always to occur in new communities struggling with problems of law and order. Unfortunate incidents like the burning of the town of Lawrence, the John Brown "massacre," and the "attack" on Fort Scott by "free-state marauders," usually

exaggerated as they were in the newspapers and containing elements of fanaticism, ruffianism and banditry, becloud the popular sovereignty issue.<sup>9</sup> Douglas' ideal of a fair-and-square political contest at the polls between free and slave-state men and an unhindered economic contest between free and slave labor, was hard to realize.

After 1856, and particularly after Douglas broke with Buchanan on the pro-slavery Lecompton constitution, popular sovereignty for Kansas and Nebraska became less favored in the South and more acceptable in the North and West. Indeed, anti-slavery men began to take up this doctrine. Eli Thayer of Massachusetts, founder of the Emigrant Aid Society, was one of the first of these to recognize that Kansas and the West might be made free by this doctrine. At first willing to meet Douglas' doctrine as a challenge, he later accepted it as a principle. To him it was not ordinances and laws but hardy pioneers themselves that brought freedom to the territories. Fill up the territory with free men, said Thayer, go to Kansas with "all our free labor trophies, churches and schools, printing presses, steam engines and mills." Such "Yankee filibustering" was, a Western newspaper said, "worth a thousand Wilnot provisos."<sup>10</sup> Thayer attached, it is true, too much importance to the particular part played by his own societies in settling Kansas.<sup>11</sup> Freedom came to Kansas because of a great wave of migration, much larger in volume than the aid societies, and not consciously abolitionist but relentlessly and naturally working for freedom. "While politicians were quarreling about slavery in the territories, in Congress and in the press, on the stump and in the national conventions, the people of Kansas, Nebraska, New Mexico and Washington were quietly settling it to suit themselves."<sup>12</sup>

Thayer became the parent of a large number of Republicans who paid homage to the popular sovereignty idea. A party vigorously opposed to the doctrine from 1854 to 1856 furnished supporters for it from 1856 to 1860. Their version was "real," "true," "practical" popular sovereignty; it would brook no interference by Buchanan, no veto by territorial governors of local bills abolishing slavery, no Dred Scott decision. Their technique was to be more effective than that of the Democratic Kansas-Nebraska act! However, some Republicans did not make even these distinctions and were frankly pro-Douglas. Did not his Freeport doctrine maintain that nothing could keep the people of a territory from preventing slavery if they were determined to do so? Consistent adherence to and support of this doctrine by the great wave of free-state migration into Kansas would make the Douglas method and Republican aims identical.

Horace Greeley was one of the first to take up Thayer's ideas, later, however, losing faith on account of the bloodshed in Kansas. Such views were also sponsored by Salmon P. Chase and by the important Cincinnati *Commercial* with its vigorous young correspondent Murat Halstead.

We need only to recall the *rapprochement* between Douglas and certain Republican leaders in 1858. At the time when Lincoln and Douglas were engaged in a contest for office, keen-minded Republican leaders saw that their own party and the Douglas Democrats were standing together on the Kansas question, and discerning Southern slavery expansionists were realizing the dangers to their own cause in both of these Western men who were rivals for a seat in the United States Senate. The classic Lincoln-Douglas debate, however justified by the political situation at the time, appears to have been rather a contest of acumen and political strategy than a debate involving far reaching differences on the slavery question. Beveridge says in its later days it was "an exhibition of dexterity—bold and quick thrusts, sure and cautious parrying, blows in return to be avoided with skill."<sup>13</sup> With Douglas insurgents fighting elbow to elbow with Republicans against Buchanan and the South, what need was there for the party of Seward, Chase, and Lincoln to press toward absolute prohibition of slavery in the territories?

There is persistent and almost convincing evidence that Schuyler Colfax of Indiana, Horace Greeley, and other Republicans were actively pro-Douglas in 1858. Colfax seems to have urged Douglas to become the great national anti-slavery leader. "I only give these things to you," Colfax said in a letter to his mother, "to show the strange evolutions of politics and what strange bedfellows its whirligigs bring together. You must not repeat them to anyone."<sup>14</sup> Some Republicans felt that their vigorous young party was in danger of losing the reason for its existence. This would have been indeed a serious setback for the powerful economic, sectional and political forces that had grown up in the East and the aggressive great lake region. Oliver P. Morton of Indiana stated the party dilemma: "If Kansas and Nebraska come in as free states, . . . the other territories will be free too, and the present issue between the Republican and Democratic parties will be over. Now we have a new party and we must have a living issue."<sup>15</sup> For years after 1858, Greeley on the one hand and Douglas on the other were hard put to it to disprove certain statements of Representative Kellogg of Illinois, who insisted that at the time of the contest between Lincoln and Douglas, Greeley again and again visited Douglas and wrote letters to Illinois urging Republicans to allow Douglas to



return to the Senate without a contest. Various Eastern Republicans supported Greeley in this position.<sup>16</sup> Gustav Koerner says that Greeley worked hard to induce Republicans to elect Douglas men to the legislature,<sup>17</sup> and Douglas was also having dealings with the Republican Frank Blair of Missouri.<sup>18</sup> But the traditional anti-Douglas feeling among Illinois Republicans was too great to allow this movement to assume major proportions.

In 1860, at Charleston, Southern radical pro-slavery expansionists saw clearly that under popular sovereignty Kansas was becoming free; they bolted the Douglas ticket and seceded. To them the Western Douglas Democracy stood convicted of "Sewardism" and "Frank Blair Republicanism."<sup>19</sup> On the other hand, the Republicans at Chicago, in the face of the great popularity of Douglas in the West and border North, receded somewhat from the high ground of 1856, adopting a more moderate anti-slavery platform. Although it called Democratic popular sovereignty a deception and fraud, it did not say that Congress would prohibit slavery in the territories, but stated that neither Congress nor a territorial legislature could by law establish the institution in those regions. The candidate nominated, Abraham Lincoln, was a man whose claim on the public attention was at the time based on his Western democratic attitude, his reputation for honesty, his local political astuteness, and his innate love of the Union. He was just the man to appeal to the old Whigs, to moderates of all types in the doubtful counties of the West, and perhaps, even, to popular sovereignty men. With great keenness of observation, a Western poet and novelist says that the West of Douglas won in the Lincoln convention.<sup>20</sup>

In the campaign that followed there was a definite attempt in various places to put Webster-Douglas principles to Republican uses. This appropriation by the opposite party of popular sovereignty is one of the most interesting aspects of that great political contest. In this connection the work of the Cincinnati *Commercial* and Murat Halstead was especially important. Halstead had said before the Chicago convention that if the Republicans were wise they would put a popular sovereignty plank in their platform.<sup>21</sup> "Practical" Republicans like Eli Thayer and F. P. Stanton, with their background of real experience on the Kansas question, made speeches in favor of this view in Massachusetts, Connecticut, and elsewhere. The former, in a speech in abolitionist Worcester, said that a majority of the Republican members of Congress thought that "honest" popular sovereignty was a good thing.<sup>22</sup>

Thayer had already attracted wide attention

by his speech on "Fair Play" in the House of Representatives in 1859. In this he had asked the Republican Party to adopt a policy of non-intervention in the territories and to become more tolerant of varying views on this question. His analysis of the different political and economic groups of his day, his realistic treatment of the Kansas question and of the competing systems of free and slave labor, mark him as a keen observer. Like Douglas he suggests present-day pluralist or regionalist viewpoints. He had, it must be admitted, too casual an attitude on the weak points in popular sovereignty in Kansas. The contest, he said, had already become "insipid" by 1856. "It is now [1859] apparent that there are eight or nine free-state men to one slave-state man." He had little fear of Dred Scott decisions and no confidence in the power of Congress either to prohibit or establish slavery in the territories. Freedom for the West was inevitable.<sup>23</sup> His views were better suited to the West than to abolitionist Worcester, and we are not surprised when we read that he was invited to come West to help the Republicans, although we would hardly expect to read that the man who asked him to come was Salmon P. Chase.<sup>24</sup> John Sherman of Ohio, and the editor of the *Ohio State Journal* also were said to have been in favor of non-intervention.<sup>25</sup>

Frank P. Stanton, ex-governor of Kansas and a Democratic convert to moderate Republicanism, made a remarkable speech in St. Louis maintaining that the Republicans were the true representatives of popular sovereignty, that there was nothing in the Chicago platform inconsistent with that doctrine, that it would be inexpedient for Congress to exclude slavery from the territories, and that, if the Republicans seemed to be cooling off in their anti-slavery sentiment, the decadence was more apparent than real. They were less abstract and violent, but more practical and better informed.<sup>26</sup> Reports from far-off Oregon that a victory was won in a Senatorial contest by a non-interventionist Republican, E. S. Baker, and statements that there was a Douglas-Republican fusion in that new state, were pointed to as showing the trend of the campaign in certain places.<sup>27</sup>

Nothing is more startling—and perhaps more amusing—than to see Chase, one of the authors of the *Appeal* in 1854, praising popular sovereignty in 1860. (Or is such a change proof of statesmanship?) "Now I say what I have said elsewhere"—he was speaking at Covington, Kentucky, a day or two before the election—"that under the doctrine of non-interference and popular sovereignty truly understood and properly applied, the question of slavery might be safely left to the people of the territories and if the simple and effectual

remedy of prohibition is not to be had, I for one, would be willing to accept this plan of settlement."<sup>28</sup>

All in all, there can be little doubt that the appropriation by the Republican party of the better elements of Douglas' doctrine together with the existence of a state of practical freedom in Kansas by 1860, helped to elect Abraham Lincoln president of the United States. This far we may safely go in revising our estimate of Douglas and his creed.

<sup>1</sup> *Congressional Globe*, 33 Cong., 1 Sess., Part 1, p. 281.

<sup>2</sup> James Ford Rhodes, *A History of the United States Since the Compromise of 1850* (New York: Harper and Bros., 1896), I, 425ff.

<sup>3</sup> P. Orman Ray, *The Repeal of the Missouri Compromise, Its Origin and Authorship*. (Cleveland, 1909); Arthur H. Clark Co., also by the same author, "The Genesis of the Kansas-Nebraska Act," *Annual Report, American Historical Association*, 1914, I, 261.

<sup>4</sup> Frank Haywood Hodder, "The Genesis of the Kansas-Nebraska Act," *Proceedings of the State Historical Society of Wisconsin*, 1912, 69-86.

<sup>5</sup> William O. Lynch, "The Character and Leadership of Stephen A. Douglas," *Mississippi Valley Historical Association Proceedings*, X, 454-467.

<sup>6</sup> Albert J. Beveridge, *Abraham Lincoln, 1809-1858* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1928), II, 168-204.

<sup>7</sup> Appendix, *Cong. Globe*, 31 Cong., 1 sess., 366, 367, 371; Beveridge, *op. cit.*, II, 109.

<sup>8</sup> *Cong. Globe*, 33 Cong., 1 sess., Part I, 278, 279.

<sup>9</sup> *Cincinnati Daily Commercial*, November 22, 25, 26, 28, 1860.

<sup>10</sup> *Ibid.*, September 14, 1860.

<sup>11</sup> Thayer, Eli, *A History of the Kansas Crusade* (New York: Harper and Bros., 1889), 31, 220, *et passim*; *Cincinnati Daily Commercial*, September 14, 27, October 25, 1860.

<sup>12</sup> *The Cincinnati Enquirer*, May 4, 1860.

<sup>13</sup> Beveridge, *op. cit.*, II, 671.

<sup>14</sup> O. J. Hollister, *Life of Schuyler Colfax* (Chicago: Funk and Wagnalls, 1887), 120-123.

<sup>15</sup> W. D. Foulke, *Life of Oliver P. Morton* (Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill Co., 1899), I, 64.

<sup>16</sup> Speech of Kellogg, *Cong. Globe*, Appendix, 36 Cong., 1 sess., 157-164; Kellogg-Greeley controversy, *Cincinnati Commercial*, February 15, March 26, 1860.

<sup>17</sup> Gustav P. Koerner, *Memoirs*, T. J. McCormack, ed. (Cedar Rapids: Torch Press, 1909), II, 53, 54, 57.

<sup>18</sup> *Cincinnati Daily Commercial*, November 2, 1860.

<sup>19</sup> *Ibid.*, April 26, May 7, 1860.

<sup>20</sup> Edgar Lee Masters, *Children of the Market Place* (New York: Macmillan Co., 1922), 443.

<sup>21</sup> *Cincinnati Daily Commercial*, April 25, 1860.

<sup>22</sup> *Ibid.*, (Supplement), September 14, 1860.

<sup>23</sup> Appendix, *Cong. Globe*, 35 Cong., 2 sess., 236-239; Thayer, *op. cit.*, 245.

<sup>24</sup> *Cincinnati Daily Commercial*, October 25, 1860.

<sup>25</sup> *Ibid.*, September 14, 1860.

<sup>26</sup> *Ibid.*, July 26, 1860.

<sup>27</sup> Cleveland Plaindealer, quoted in *Cincinnati Daily Commercial*, October 25, 1860.

<sup>28</sup> *Cincinnati Daily Commercial*, November 2, 1860.

## The Scientific Reconstruction of the Social Studies Curriculum<sup>1</sup>

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Few workers in the field of the social studies curriculum have been more prolific writers than Harold Rugg. In the last twelve years a veritable flood of journal articles, monographs, experimental pamphlets, and textbooks has issued from his pen or has been carried through under his supervision. It is to a critical examination of some aspects of this material that the present article is directed.

Rugg's work in the social studies field began with the feeling that the then-current curricula and texts were thoroughly inadequate. In the first place the curricula and texts ignored most of the important social, political, and economic problems of the day. An analysis of four commonly used history texts showed, for example, that no one of them contained a discussion of the course of the price level, and that the best of the four texts gave only five scattered pages to as important a problem as the history of the labor movement.<sup>2</sup>

In the second place the organization of the texts violated the commonly accepted psychological principles which apply to the learning process. Too many facts were presented, there was little or no provision for any real thinking on the part of the pupil, and there was no planned repetition of the important laws and facts. If we are to secure effective and efficient learning, Rugg believed, we must cut down on the amount of material we try to cover. Instead of making our texts "veritable encyclopedias" in which there are devoted "a half page to this and ten lines to that" we must build our texts around "full treatments of a restricted number of fundamental matters."<sup>3</sup>

And if our objective is to develop in pupils a critical and analytical approach to the vital problems and issues of the day, the sane thing to do is to teach directly for these ends. We should provide for real thinking on the part of the pupils. Instead of stressing the memorization of factual content

we must organize curriculum and text material so that the pupil "will be confronted constantly with definite issues" and with "unanswered questions which the pupil recognizes as important and which he really strives to unravel."<sup>4</sup>

Provision must also be made for the systematic repetition which is necessary to bring about real mastery of the fundamentals. In short we must apply the "laws of habit-formation to analytical thinking in the social field."<sup>5</sup>

In the third place the content of the curricula and texts, the grade-placement of the material, and the method of presentation have been determined not by scientific investigation but by the arm-chair opinion and *a priori* judgment of a relatively small group of subject matter specialists. Committees have "recommended specific materials for each of the school grades" but they have not stated "specifically *why* various courses are presented, *why* particular materials are to be presented in the different grades, or *why* they are organized as they are within the different grades."<sup>6</sup>

Progress in curriculum making would come, Rugg believed, "only by making a clean sweep of what we now have . . . and building a whole new program on a scientific basis of principles of selection, grade placement, and arrangement."<sup>7</sup>

In reading Rugg's work one often has the feeling that Rugg is criticizing the worst and not the best in the curriculum and textbook practice of the time. But there can be little doubt that there was much with which to find fault. Important problems were ignored, and the way in which many of the texts violated well established principles applying to the learning process was little short of a scandal. Indeed it is the present writer's opinion that Rugg's main contribution to current curriculum and textbook practice is his insistence on the points that our textbooks must furnish "*enough detail* to give students a real depth of feeling and comprehension for the matters under consideration,"<sup>8</sup> that they be organized in problem-solving form, and that there be provision for planned repetition.

In making the third count of his indictment, however, Rugg significantly widened its scope. The program is no longer merely one of applying what we know about the nature of the learning process to the problem of organizing curricula and texts around significant problems and issues as cores. The program is more than this. In building the new curriculum we are to use only "scientific" methods of curriculum construction. We are to throw the arm chair as well as the curriculum upon the scrap heap and begin to analyse, to count, and to experiment. And of analysing and counting, at least, we have had so much that whatever one may think of the wisdom of the Rugg program of research into

the problem of what to teach, one can hardly accuse Rugg and his associates of lack of industry. Rugg analysed "more than one hundred and fifty" books of frontier thinkers and listed the problems and issues discussed in the books.<sup>9</sup>

An analysis of twenty-two selected books of frontier thinkers and selected critical periodicals gave Hockett a list of 396 problems and issues.<sup>10</sup>

By analysing fifteen commonly used civics texts Lee secured some 429 issues, and by analysing twenty-two authoritative treatises, mainly college texts, of frontier thinkers, which covered essentially the same field as did the civics texts, Lee secured a list of 524 issues.<sup>11</sup>

Using such material as statistics of bank clearings, imports and exports, population, territorial area, frequency of mention by frontier thinkers, rank in Washburne's list, etc., as criteria, Rugg and Hockett compiled lists of the most important cities in the United States, foreign cities, countries, sections and regions of the world, states of the United States, islands, bodies of water, rivers, and mountains.<sup>12</sup>

An analysis of selected issues of four critical weeklies and four critical books of frontier thinkers gave Meltzer a list of 228 cue concepts. By analysing twenty-eight books of frontier thinkers in geography, economics, sociology, and government, about evenly divided among these fields, Billings secured a list of 880 basic generalizations.<sup>13</sup> Last, but by no means least, a large number of other objective studies in the field of the social studies curriculum were conveniently summarized by Earle Rugg in his *Curriculum Studies*.<sup>14</sup>

In these investigations into the problem of what to teach, the method used has been in the main the objective analysis of periodicals, questionnaires, and the writings of subject field specialists. This is the way in which scientific method has replaced arm-chair opinion and committee procedure in the selection of text and curriculum material.

When it comes to the organization and grade placement of the text and curriculum material selected, much less has been done. Apparently the only study which has been published is Mathews' work on grade placement.<sup>15</sup>

We have Rugg's assurance that his texts were based in part on three "scientific studies of grade placement of curriculum materials" and six "studies of learning and of the organization of curriculum materials." We are also told by Rugg that more than 50,000 tests taken by pupils using the experimental pamphlets were returned "for examination."<sup>16</sup> But as to what the methodology of these scientific studies was, or how the results were used in building the Rugg texts, we are left very much in the dark.

Now the answer to the question—how scientific



is Rugg's work?—depends of course on what is meant by "scientific" and "scientific method." If by scientific method is understood the formulation of hypotheses followed by experimental verification, Rugg's work is disappointing. For on examining the results of Rugg's program of research one of the first things that strikes one's attention is the fact that Rugg began his project by assuming first of all that "the rank and file of our people have sufficient intellectual capacity to organize machinery to carry out their collective will effectively," "*that a person with an I. Q. of, say, 100 can, if exposed to nine or ten years of rigorous practice in thinking, develop tendencies of deliberation which he will carry on through adult life.*"

Apparently no attempt was made to establish the validity of this assumption beyond what is implied in Rugg's statement that the hypothesis was made "deliberately, after dealing for some years with the facts of 'abstract intelligence' and of educational and mental measurement."<sup>17</sup> In other words Rugg appeals to his "experience" with tests and measures, and the very aim of science is to substitute objectively proven fact for often untrustworthy experience.

In the second place Rugg assumed that the main objective of the social studies is to acquaint pupils with the major social, political, and economic problems and issues with which society is confronted, and with the information which is necessary for an intelligent handling of these problems. Now that Rugg's position is a thoroughly reasonable one, the present writer would be one of the first to admit. But still this is all opinion, and although Rugg began his work with the blast, "The crux of the matter is that we need investigations, not opinion,"<sup>18</sup> he has apparently made no attempt to establish the validity of either of these two fundamental hypotheses. It would be at least a tenable hypothesis that since the same intelligence tests are showing that a significant proportion of our people do not have the ability to think at all critically, and since the sociologists have shown that passive mentation is a tremendously important factor in controlling social behavior, the function of the school is not so much to equip pupils to handle the important problems of society critically and constructively as it is to rubber-stamp them with those ready-made responses which are appropriate to the problems these pupils will probably meet in adult life.<sup>19</sup>

Both hypotheses begin by assuming that the primary objective of education is to develop a citizenry which can make our democratic form of government function effectively. But they would use radically different means for achieving this end. Rugg's method would train its citizens to think, the other would reserve this function to the few

who are competent to think. In assuming his program to be the sounder of the two Rugg can hardly claim to be any more scientific than the most "arm chairish"<sup>20</sup> of his predecessors. He has reasons, and good ones, for his opinions, but any arm-chair philosopher worth his salt has reasons for his opinions too. As far as method is concerned, Rugg here is no different from his predecessors.

Indeed there is some evidence in Rugg's work that he misconceives the nature of scientific method. In one source he tells us that in "any field of research, scientific method makes use of at least two distinct steps: (1) the exercise of creative imagination in the construction of hypotheses" and (2) the "collection of facts which bear upon the issue."<sup>21</sup> It would have been much clearer had Rugg said "the collection of facts which bear upon the validity of the hypothesis." The "collection of facts which bear upon the issue" is altogether too vague. It is possible that this lack of precision in statement was the result of lack of precision in thought, for two paragraphs later in the same source Rugg goes on to say of the scientific students of the curriculum that they "are making hypotheses and collecting and reviewing evidence with respect both to the content of the course and its organization, grade placement, and class presentation."<sup>22</sup>

Now there can be little doubt that the new school of curriculum workers have been making plenty of hypotheses and investigations too. But the strange thing about much of this new kind of scientific method is that all too often the investigations have had little or no bearing upon the validity or lack of validity of the hypothesis with which the project began. For example Rugg began his work by assuming that the social studies should acquaint the pupil with the important problems and issues of the day. He then proceeded to determine "scientifically" what the important problems and issues are. But it is obvious that determining what the important problems are does not help much in establishing the validity of the hypothesis that our curricula and texts should be organized around the important problems as cores, and until the validity of the hypothesis has been established, it would seem that the question of how the curriculum should be organized must remain largely a philosophical question. Until then there is some room for the arm chair.

After it has been assumed that the main objective of the social studies is to develop in pupils a critical and analytical approach to the important problems and issues, there arises the problem of determining what the important problems and issues are. This, Rugg has done by the objective analysis of the writings of frontier thinkers. Now as the present writer has shown in another connection, there is ground for believing that so-called objec-

tive analysis is not at all as objective as many of its exponents would have us believe.<sup>23</sup> But perhaps even more interesting is the fact that in determining what the problems and issues are, Rugg has used a method which is essentially the same as the method which he has attacked so vigorously. He has fallen back on a consensus of the opinions of subject field specialists as found in their writings, and it is hard to see wherein this kind of consensus of opinion is any different in kind from a consensus of the opinions of a committee of these same subject field specialists. To be sure Rugg's "committee" is larger than most traditional committees. Moreover Rugg's method is one in which conflicts of opinion are very easily reconciled because of the fact that Rugg, as the interpreter of his "committee" has only himself to please. But these do not appear to be differences of fundamental importance between the old subjective and the new objective methods. As to whether consensus of opinion constitutes scientific method, the present writer is not particularly interested. It is perfectly obvious that the reasoned opinions or judgments of competent persons are, in the present state of our knowledge, the only method we have of determining what to teach for. But it should be emphasized that a consensus of opinion is opinion and not scientifically established fact, even though in determining the consensus of opinion only objective methods of analysis are used.

After the important problems and issues, facts, concepts, and generalizations have been tabulated there arises the problem of organizing them for textbook and teaching purposes, for the tabulation of the contents of the books of frontier thinkers "does not provide us with a criterion for deciding *how much* time or attention to give to any one problem, topic, or question. "Such decisions," Rugg says, "can be made only by trying a number of allotments with public-school children and by choosing the best one."<sup>24</sup> Similarly when Rugg and Hockett consider the problem of determining the relative value of the important location facts compared with the other material in the social studies field, they say that the "only possible next step is experimentation. We must determine as well as the information now at hand permits, which curriculum materials are of most moment. . . . We must set up alternative schemes of instruction, making such experiments and keeping such records as will gradually answer the question of allotment of time on the basis of evidence."<sup>25</sup>

A little thought, however, makes it obvious that educational problems of the kind which Rugg has posited here are not at all ones which can be solved experimentally in any ordinary sense of the term, for we must first decide what constitutes the "best"

allotment of time, and how "best" is to be defined is a problem which is philosophical and not scientific in nature. By experimentation it is probably possible to determine whether persons of a given level of intelligence can memorize rhymed nonsense syllables more quickly than unrhymed nonsense syllables. We all agree on how quickness is to be measured, and consequently repetitions of an experiment of this kind by different workers will yield at least roughly the same results. But when the problem is one of a "best" allotment of time, or "best" organization of materials, we must first of all decide how "best" is to be defined. Otherwise the results of experimental studies by different investigators will seldom agree, and agreement of the results secured by different investigations of the same problem is one of the earmarks of scientific method. In deciding how "best" is to be defined we are of course forced to fall back upon arm-chair philosophizing and the committee procedure which Rugg has condemned, for they are the only way we have.

Apparently the only published result of the Rugg experimental program in organization and grade placement is the monograph on grade placement by Mathews.<sup>26</sup> In Mathews' study, seventy-two samples of text material, graphs, maps, and pictographs taken from the *Rugg Social Science Pamphlets* were presented to over nine thousand public school children in grades four to twelve, and the pupils' comprehension of the material tested. The samples of material used are presented in the monograph, but only selected items from the tests are presented. And as to whether the lack of comprehension on any grade level of the test material was because of the inherent difficulties of the subject matter, or because of inadequate past training of the pupils, or the way in which the material was expounded, or the difficulty of the text questions, we are told little or nothing.<sup>27</sup> And as to how the results of the study were used in the grade placement of the material in the Rugg texts we are told only that "the findings will be of immediate practical value as an aid to the placement of materials in the curriculum from which they were selected," and that the findings "may be used as a crude scale to aid in judging the comprehension difficulties of similar curriculum materials."<sup>28</sup>

In view of the several considerations examined above, the conclusion seems probably warranted that the chief value of the monographs published to date by Rugg and his associates has been to familiarize them with the subject matter of the social studies field. Certainly it is not at all unreasonable to expect that the curriculum worker shall have mastered the subject matter of a field before he begins to reorganize the curriculum in that field. But



when it comes to the questions "why various courses are presented, why particular materials are to be presented in the different grades, or why they are organized as they are within the different grades?"<sup>20</sup> it is doubtful if Rugg can tell us much more than that his judgment, based upon his knowledge of established psychological principles and his knowledge of the social studies fields, has dictated his decisions in these problems. And as far as method is concerned, this hardly constitutes a significant break with the past.

<sup>1</sup> For criticism and advice, the writer is indebted to Professor Howard E. Wilson, Graduate School of Education, Harvard University. It was in one of Professor Wilson's courses, "The Curriculum in the Social Studies," that this article was originally written as part of a course thesis. This is of course not to say that Professor Wilson is responsible for the views expressed herein.

<sup>2</sup> Harold Rugg, "Do the Social Studies Prepare Pupils Adequately for Life Activities?", National Society for the Study of Education, *Twenty-Second Yearbook* (1923), Part II, pp. 14, 12. See also *ibid.*, pp. 10-21, 317-320.

<sup>3</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 16.

<sup>4</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 20.

<sup>5</sup> Harold Rugg, "The Methods and Aims of Committee Procedure," *Historical Outlook*, XII (October, 1921), 252.

<sup>6</sup> Harold O. Rugg, "How Shall We Reconstruct the Social Studies Curriculum?", *Historical Outlook*, XII (May, 1921), 186.

<sup>7</sup> Harold Rugg, "Needed Changes in the Committee Procedure of Reconstructing the Social Studies," *Elementary School Journal*, XXI (May, 1921), 696.

<sup>8</sup> Harold Rugg, "Do the Social Studies Prepare Pupils Adequately for Life Activities?", National Society for the Study of Education, *Twenty-Second Yearbook* (1923), Part II, 16.

<sup>9</sup> Harold O. Rugg, "Problems of Contemporary Life as the Basis for Curriculum-Making in the Social Studies," National Society for the Study of Education, *Twenty-Second Yearbook* (1923), Part II, 267-268.

<sup>10</sup> John A. Hockett, "A Determination for the Major Social Problems of American Life," New York City: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1927.

<sup>11</sup> Baldwin Lee, "Issues in the Social Studies," New York City: The Lincoln School of Teachers College, 1928.

<sup>12</sup> Harold Rugg and John Hockett, "Objective Studies in Map Location," New York City: The Lincoln School of Teachers College, 1925.

<sup>13</sup> Hyman Meltzer, "Children's Social Concepts," (New York City: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1925); Neal Billings, "A Determination of Generalizations Basic to the Social Studies Curriculum," (Baltimore: Warwick and York, 1929.)

<sup>14</sup> Earle U. Rugg, "Curriculum Studies in the Social Sciences and Citizenship," Greeley: Colorado State Teachers College, 1928.

<sup>15</sup> C. O. Mathews, "The Grade Placement of Curriculum Materials in the Social Studies," New York City: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1926.

<sup>16</sup> Harold Rugg, "An Introduction to American Civilization" (Boston: Ginn and Company, 1929), ix, viii.

<sup>17</sup> Harold Rugg, "Do the Social Studies Prepare Pupils Adequately for Life Activities?", National Society for the Study of Education, *Twenty-Second Yearbook* (1923), Part II, p. 3, note.

<sup>18</sup> Harold O. Rugg, "How Shall We Reconstruct the Social Studies Curriculum?", *Historical Outlook*, XII (May, 1921), 187.

<sup>19</sup> See Ross L. Finney, "A Sociological Philosophy of Education," (New York City: The Macmillan Company, 1928.)

<sup>20</sup> This is so important a term in Rugg's vocabulary that liberties are here taken with the English language.

<sup>21</sup> Harold Rugg, "The Methods and Aims of Committee Procedure," *Historical Outlook*, XII (October, 1921), 249.

<sup>22</sup> *Ibid.*, 249.

<sup>23</sup> J. T. Phinney, "The Objective Selection of Curriculum Material in the Social Studies," *The Social Studies*, XXV (Feb. 1934), 69.

<sup>24</sup> Harold O. Rugg, "Problems of Contemporary Life as the Basis for Curriculum-Making in the Social Studies," National Society for the Study of Education, *Twenty-Second Yearbook* (1923), Part II, 270.

<sup>25</sup> Harold Rugg and John Hockett, "Objective Studies in Map Location" (New York City: The Lincoln School of Teachers College, 1925), p. 89.

<sup>26</sup> C. O. Mathews, *op. cit.*

<sup>27</sup> One of the interesting points which this study turned up was that the easiest of the samples of reading material used in the tests contained 28 words not in the first 4000 of Thorndike's *Word Book* with an average credit number of 7.1, and an average length of sentence of 41 words, while the most difficult sample of reading material used contained only 10 words not in the first 4000 with an average credit of 6.1 and an average length of sentence of only 27 words. C. O. Mathews, *op. cit.*, p. 36.

<sup>28</sup> C. O. Mathews, *op. cit.*, p. 42.

<sup>29</sup> Harold O. Rugg, "How Shall We Reconstruct the Social Studies Curriculum?", *Historical Outlook*, XII (May, 1921), 186.

"The Gods of the Maya" by Lewis Spence in the January number of the *Hibbert Journal* throws more light on the little known primitive civilization of Central America, a civilization which still awaits its Breasted or its Sayce. "Although a fairly high percentage of the gods of tradition can be identified with certain painted or sculptured forms, it is still difficult to collate many Maya divine figures as described in myth with any of the art forms." Such a discrepancy he considers as indicative that the mythology was composed at a later date long after the older cities of the region were deserted (sixth to tenth centuries) and that it therefore represents the mythology of the Maya of Guatemala as apart from that of Yucatan, in the process of breaking down.

Professor Shotwell's fine appreciation of Dr. Inazo Nitobe in the November-December number of *Pacific Affairs* gives a new conception of the achievements of the Japanese statesman. "A true representative of all that was best in the cultural heritage in his own country, he brought to the task standards of judgment which refused to admit the sentimental in human relationships. International understanding meant to him not an extraneous effort of the mind, a temperamental straining of the will, an unreal idealism; it meant sympathetic study of all those varied expressions in the field of art and literature as well as of politics in which a nation reveals its complex personality. It is not too much to say that in teaching us to understand Japan he added greatly to our understanding of ourselves."

# Current Events and the Teaching of European History

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If the teachers of European or world history and the writers of textbooks in this field should put themselves into the shoes of ninth and tenth grade students and teach and write accordingly, most of the difficulties in this course that we hear about would vanish. No subject of real human concern is too difficult to teach successfully to students, whether it be psychology, economics, sociology, or ethics.

It requires no great discernment to see that the time is at hand when the social studies should be both organized and taught from a radically different point of view than in the past. As I understand it, the general complaint of teachers is that of all the social studies, European or world history is the most difficult to teach successfully. This universal complaint, I believe, is not the result of student stupidity; it lies in quite a different direction.

Both teachers and students complain. The vastness of the field is overwhelming; the multiplicity of detail is confusing; the variety of personages, names, dates, institutions, treaties, governments, to be learned is mystifying. Children recently out of the grammar grades are asked to wade through and master in less than thirty-eight weeks of actual study texts from 700 to 900 pages. There are many chapters to be covered—thirty, forty, fifty, or even as many as sixty. A glimpse of some movement or institution the student gets in one chapter of the text, and another glimpse of the same movement or institution he finds in another chapter. Different chapters dealing with the same institution or point of development stand isolated in relation of one to the other. Students grope in uncertainty and darkness among ponderous and unpronounceable words. Certain time-worn educational requirements, terminologies, categories, and concepts the teacher must respect and observe.

Students are expected to answer literally dozens of questions on a single chapter or topic, many of which have no connection with a unified theme. Not long ago I saw a set of review examination questions on the French Revolution; one question asked was that the class learn what part each of forty-three persons played in that revolution! In addition, sixteen other questions were included for review of that topic. I wondered whether the teacher

had the impression that the Board of Education had hired him to create history experts out of tenth grade students. It is not at all surprising that students frequently wonder what the whole course in European history is about, pray to the good Lord for help, ask that the educational sins of their elders be forgiven, and if they are fortunate enough to make the passing grade, thank God that the course has come to an end at last.

## EUROPEAN HISTORY STUDENTS CAN BE SAVED

There are many elements which enter into the general complaint about the European history course. How can we stimulate the interest of students in European history; how can we make the course more truly educative?

In my opinion, the general answer is that the course must be so organized and taught as to fit into the intellectual range of the student. The course must be organized more rationally, so that it is more illuminating. Ways and means must be devised and used which will help the student comprehend the development of significant human institutions, human themes, human struggles. This means that the study of European or world history must be made broader in meaning than the mere reading and learning of cold words on cold pages. Textbook writers and history teachers always should keep in mind the necessity of extreme simplicity of organization, analysis, and simplicity of language. The lack of experience and the immaturity of those taking this subject demand such treatment.

## FOUR INDISPENSABLE POSTULATES

If the teacher is to achieve the kind of results in this course that good education requires, there are four points that must be thought out carefully: (1) determination of major objections; (2) selection of subject matter; (3) organization of subject matter; (4) methods and devices in class-room procedure.

## DETERMINATION OF MAJOR OBJECTIVES

Before the teacher enters upon the year's work, he must determine what he wants the course to mean to the student in terms of permanent good. This means thinking out major objectives. A multitude

of objectives will not do because no teacher, it seems to me, is capable of achieving a great variety of objectives in teaching ninth and tenth grade students—the greater the number of objectives, the greater the confusion.

The major objectives of the modern European history course, as I see them, are these: The student is to

A. Know the foundations (the background) of the leading modern political, economic, and social institutions.

B. Appreciate the social meaning of the basic political, economic, and social trends in current European or world history before their records have frozen into ancient history.

C. Comprehend the need of achieving among nations international understanding, good-will, and co-operation.

D. Draw reasonable and sensible conclusions and lessons from his study of leading institutions, movements, units, and trends covered by the course.

If these four objectives are reasonably achieved, the student (1) will know the essential facts and will have the necessary information about the outstanding developments and movements of the past as background for understanding the major institutions of the present; (2) will see the vital relation between significant current happenings and past events (textbook history); (3) will become more deeply interested in and better qualified to comment on major national and international developments; and (4) will be able to contribute his proper share of wholesome and practical social thinking and achievement to society.

A real job for the teacher is that of tenaciously sticking to the achievement of the major objectives, allowing details, facts, and episodes that are irrelevant (no matter how interesting, or how frequently found in various textbooks) no consideration.

#### SELECTION OF SUBJECT MATTER

Vastness, indeed, characterizes the field of European or world history. With every passing year that field becomes wider and more complicated. Thus it is altogether proper to characterize as utter foolishness that view of teaching which emphasizes studying the minutiae of history.

Despite this vastness, we should keep in mind that one of the most striking things about the story of the human race is that ever since history's beginning, man has been struggling everywhere and always essentially with the same problems, although the methods used by man in attempting to solve his problems have not always been the same. Furthermore, exceedingly few vital human problems really have been settled. Thinking along this line, the teacher will find it a great help in determining

the content of the European or world history course.

The major objectives constitute the pattern to be followed in selecting subject matter. The selection of outstanding and significant contributions, institutions, movements, and problems which constitute the foundations of modern Europe will be a basic part of the content. The irrepressible, ever-recurring, and wide-spread disturbing questions and problems that have arisen out of Europe's attempts to build upon the foundations of the past will make up another basic part of the subject matter. How Europe at the present time is struggling toward the solution of disturbing questions and problems through the use of national and international organizations and instrumentalities should be part and parcel of the subject matter. The principle that underlies such a selection of content makes subject matter a means to an end, not an end in itself; this principle makes no provision for studying history for history's sake.

#### CURRENT EVENTS AN ESSENTIAL PART OF SUBJECT MATTER

In determining the content of the European history course, if he is going to do thoroughgoing, significant, and illuminating teaching, the history teacher will by no means depend on past events alone as recorded in textbooks. He will lay out the course so that Europe's story will be carried beyond the text into the present. This certainly should not mean that just a passing glance now and then shall be taken at what is happening in Europe at the present time; such a course would be neither historical nor genuinely educative. The field of current world happenings, as they are related to the course, should be made an *integral part* of the course in European history (as in any other history), just as much a part of it as textbook content—an unfinished story is never satisfactory.

Whether some students enjoy and can understand current events, the reader may judge by making careful note of the thoughts and opinions expressed by members of my own classes, as they are tabulated further on in this article.

#### ORGANIZATION OF SUBJECT MATTER

On what principle should organization of subject matter for the European history course (or any other history course) be made?

A careful examination will disclose that what has come to be known as the "encyclopedic" principle has been widely followed up to the present time. This means that the builders of European history courses have organized subject matter fundamentally on the basis of knowledge and information. Unquestionably, those who believe in following



this principle are quite within their rights in doing so. The encyclopedic principle has had a long trial, but as far as abiding and greatly worth-while results for students are concerned, I believe that I am justified in saying that most progressive history teachers who have weighed the results have found that principle of organizing subject matter seriously wanting.

The other principle of organizing content, which recently has come into prominence and has I believe come to stay, is known as the "unitary" principle. This means that the content of the course is planned in comprehensive units, each unit dealing with a significant, outstanding, or persistent institution, movement, tendency, or aspect. Generally, each unit is treated as a whole, either chronologically or counter-chronologically—usually the former. The idea here is that history should be written and taught, not fundamentally from the viewpoint of knowledge, information, and memorizing but from that of comprehension and illumination. These details or episodes which contribute to this objective are used; all others are rejected.

#### EUROPEAN HISTORY UNITS AT THE EAST ORANGE HIGH SCHOOL

At the East Orange High School, some of my colleagues and I have organized the European history course into nineteen units.<sup>1</sup> The titles of some of these units are: "How the Christian Church Brought Light into the Dark Ages—the Beginnings of the Christian Church;" "How the Crusades Broadened Men's Minds, Encouraged Commerce, and Hastened the Decline of Feudal Society;" "How the Sufferings and Sacrifices of Many Seventeenth Century Englishmen Made It Possible for Us to Enjoy Political and Religious Freedom Today;" "How a New Industrial Revolution Is Breaking Down Individualistic Society and Bringing in a Coöperative Society."

A very carefully worked out Study Outline accompanies each of the nineteen units. In addition, we have organized the work so that among other experiences our students get considerable training in vocabulary drill and discussion, in answering not merely fact questions but carefully worded thought questions as well, in drawing reasonable deductions, and in making practical applications of knowledge and information gained.

#### A SAMPLE STUDY OUTLINE

UNITARY THEME: Will War Destroy Civilization or Can Civilization Destroy War?

##### I. Cost of the World War

- A. In life, suffering, and money
- B. War prosperity followed by hard times
- C. Effect upon civilization
- D. Who pays the bill?

##### II. Causes of the World War

- A. Psychological
- B. Political
- C. Economic
- D. Immediate

##### III. The World War

- A. Importance of the British control of the sea
- B. New Instruments of death
- C. Why our entrance into the war was important
- D. Cause of the revolution in Russia, in Germany, and in Austria
- E. Summary of outstanding happenings in the war

##### IV. Making Peace—Treaties of Versailles

- A. The "Secret Treaties"
- B. President Wilson's "Fourteen Points"
- C. The reparation problem
- D. Estimate of the Treaties of Versailles

##### V. Progress towards World Peace

- A. The League of Nations and its work
- B. The Washington Conference
- C. The Permanent Court of International Justice
- D. The Geneva Conference—why it failed
- E. The Paris Peace Pact—outlawing war
- F. The London Conference
- G. Summary of Peace Achievements

##### VI. Current Phases of the main question

- A. Present-day peace disturbing ideas and factors as disclosed by the newspapers and the magazines
- B. Current efforts to maintain peace as disclosed by the newspapers and magazines

##### VII. Can civilization destroy war?

- A. Things still to be done
- B. Student conclusions

##### VIII. Vocabulary drill

##### IX. Review questions

- A. Fact questions
- B. Thought questions

When the student hands in his work to the teacher, it will be in the form of a booklet, say of sixteen pages, made by folding eight pages of large cheap school paper, which is used to save the expense of costly paper. The booklet contains the answers to all the Study Outline headings and sub-headings (or of as many of them as the teacher may require) worked out in orderly fashion, each sub-heading being answered in numbered sentences. At the center of the booklet the student places all of his newspaper clippings on the unit and his magazine bibliography sheet. The student puts his initials on each clipping.

The object of starting this unit with the cost of the World War is to create intense interest in the unit and to motivate it powerfully.

#### ORGANIZATION OF CURRENT EVENTS

In my own work, current happenings for the European history course are organized on the unitary principle, as the foregoing outline discloses; so is the textbook material. At the beginning of the present school year, students in this course did not open the class text for almost six weeks! During this time their assignments were to search the daily newspapers for news and editorial accounts of current happenings in Europe and in those countries specifically associated with Europe. It was also their task to organize these hundreds of clippings according to two fundamental divisions.

Those clippings that dealt with significant political, economic, and social happenings in individual countries (Austria, England, Egypt, France, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Russia, Spain, Turkey, etc.) made up one of these classifications. Those that dealt with matters of pan-European interest (such as Fascism, Hitlerism, the League of Nations, the World Court, threats to world peace, boundary disputes, increased political nationalism, increased economic nationalism, war debts, etc.) constituted the other fundamental division.

The students were also required to organize material for this course from the class magazine and other magazines such as they have access to outside of school. Among the dozens of magazine articles now common to the class, the following may be named: "Islam's Rebirth in Turkey," "The Greco-Turkish Peace Example to Europe," "Spain Moves Right," "Should the Jews Survive?" "The World Watches Germany," "The New Russia Challenges the World to Think," "Britain's Democracy on Trial," "Looking on at Geneva."

All these various current events' materials from both newspapers and magazines are woven into the course as a whole, being made to fit organically into the respective units as they are studied individually. The Unit Study Outlines are so organized as to require the study of current events on the unitary principle. This means that each textbook unit is brought down to the present, as in my opinion each unit should be. It is good education to make past events (history in texts) and current events serve each other and the cause of progressive education.

Personally, I am not interested in developing in my students exaggerated current-events-mindedness but rather the ability to select, organize, and study current happenings that serve a genuine educative purpose, happenings that will help students comprehend significant and illuminating historical institutions and movements. If current events are of the kind that become old or uninteresting in two weeks, two months, or six months, they certainly are not the kind that should receive serious consideration. My belief is that if young Americans ever are going to read the newspapers and magazines intelligently, they must be taught to do so because otherwise they will never learn critically to make use of these mighty instruments of education.

#### CLASS-ROOM PROCEDURES

What use is made of the so-called recitation periods? Only a partial picture can be given here.

I regard my class-room as a social science laboratory, and the laboratory method is in almost constant use. On an average, about four periods out of six are thus employed. During these periods I help students individually when they need my assistance.

Students search the class text and at least two collateral texts in working out the various sub-headings of the Unit Study Outline. They bring their classified current events materials to class and search these for ideas to put into the Unit Outline. They make out magazine bibliographies for the same purpose.

If it is apparent that certain points are common or fairly common difficulties, we stop and clear these up for the whole class; this saves time. Students may consult each other, but this privilege must not be abused.

Each unit is regarded as a job, and the job must be finished in an assigned number of days. At home the students must watch the newspapers daily throughout the year. They also complete such parts of the Unit Outline which they do not finish in class. In class we talk over together such important matters as propaganda, partisanship, and prejudice as disclosed in the newspapers, warning them that they must always be on their guard against such deadly foes of decency and democracy. Of course we talk over together what each unit includes, how best we might go about our job, and what we hope to accomplish by studying and discussing it.

We talk in an informal way about the meaning of words and phrases, interpret statements and paragraphs, try to reason and think together, attempt to do some practical social thinking about the theme, the movement, or the institution under consideration.

After the unit is completed, we spend usually two days in reviewing and discussing it as a whole. Before a test is given on a unit, the students have had two or three quizzes of about five minutes, just enough to give a fair idea of how faithfully they are doing their daily work, and to keep them on the job more carefully than they would without the quizzes.

One point I must emphasize. I try to keep in mind constantly the fact that tenth-grade students are children after all. They at first know little, their mental horizon is circumscribed, they are inarticulate at the start, their vocabulary is small, their capacity to organize is limited and their ability to think is microscopic. However, these young people have the capacity to grow; they like to feel themselves growing in these respects; and they will grow along these lines under considerate instruction.

#### STUDENT REACTIONS TO CURRENT EVENTS WORK

Just recently I asked the class to write out their answers to the question: "How valuable do you consider our current events work?"

When the class entered the room they did not know that they were to answer the question. I had



not hinted previously that they would be expected to discuss such a question; I took them unawares purposely. The students were asked not to sign their names to the papers they wrote.

The thoughts most frequently expressed are being submitted to the reader. The words are almost entirely those used by the students:

I notice that countries in Europe have disputes and problems today that are very much like the quarrels and problems European countries had years and years ago. I guess they have not changed much over there.

As we go on studying about different countries we can make good use of the clippings we have gathered.

One of the most interesting things to me is to notice how we have developed some of the ideas European peoples started long ago.

When we compare what our clippings say with what our text says, we see how nations have changed in the course of time.

My clippings give me a lot of information about European countries that I certainly would not know about had I not been asked to collect them.

It certainly is interesting to find out different viewpoints our newspaper editors hold toward European countries. I notice they do not all agree.

What my clippings say serve as a check on my own ideas about different European countries and the people over there. I think we should be careful what we think and say about foreign peoples.

Besides textbook knowledge we should know more—the

state of affairs in the world today. I think this is filling out our education.

The connections we have made in class between current happenings in Europe and our own textbook have led me to see the study of history in a new light.

It is much easier to learn history by comparing happenings today with those in olden times, and it is loads more interesting than just to read out of a textbook about old Egypt or Italy or France, and so on, and do no comparing.

To me the newspapers and the magazine are more easily understood than the text, and happenings seem more real and human when we read about them in the clippings and the magazine.

My current history work shows me that our own country is very much tied up with Europe. It is interesting to note what other countries think of us.

Not knowing in advance that they were to answer the question that was asked them, may it not be reasonable to believe that boys and girls of their age would be incapable of expressing instantaneously such opinions about the value of studying current events in connection with the textbook? Did they write out of an educational experience, or did they write fiction one hundred per cent?

<sup>1</sup> For the complete list of units and the nineteen accompanying Study Outlines, see the forthcoming text, "Units in World History" by John T. Greenan and J. Madison Gathany, published by McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York.

## Whither Social-Science Teachers?

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American thought today is torn by the controversies aroused by the New Deal and the doctrines of national planning. It is agreed that the United States is now passing from an age of individualism into an age of collectivism. But there is a veritable babel of notions as to what should be the nature of this coming collectivism. Out of the welter of confusion, however, two tendencies can be discerned. One is the road to Fascism which at its best might mean collectivism for the sake of the collective, with the individual at the periphery and the collective entity at the center. The other tendency might be called the road to social democracy or democratic collectivism which at its best might mean collectivism, for the sake of the individual, with the individual at the center of the system.

Now it is conceivable, though not probable, that the United States will clearly discriminate between the two tendencies, turn its back on the American dream of a race freed from its economic and ideological chains, and deliberately take the lower road leading to Fascism. For during every historical epoch, mankind after an exhausting struggle upwards has either tired of the conflict or has allowed its imagination to be captured by false gods who

have exploited its parochialisms and its prejudices. And only the greatest minds have consistently dared to struggle painfully towards a world in which ultimately (in the long last) man should surpass himself. There is however a much stronger possibility that the United States may take the turn towards Fascism without realizing that fact until it is perhaps too late. And that danger is of particular significance to social-science teachers who aspire to inform the mind of American youth and to capture its imagination for noble ends. For unless social-science teachers realize their own mental confusions and limitations, they will not be able to distinguish clearly between the two roads and the blind will lead the blind.

The theme of this article is therefore a call to self-examination of our limitations. For unless we take cognizance of these limitations and strive to grasp the implications of the different tendencies involved in the New Deal and national planning, we may be helping to implant notions far from our conscious thoughts. Like the cow-boy on the range we may be driving our doggies to a slaughter house instead of to the promised land; we may be implanting notions of national planning and the New

Deal which will inevitably lead to Fascism and Armageddon instead of to the American dream. This article will therefore attempt to touch very briefly upon the nature of our limitations, to illustrate in some detail the resulting mental confusions, and to define the nature of the alternatives with which the New Deal confronts us.

Long before the concept of relativity had come to dominate the world of physical science, the school of scientific historians had begun to call our attention to the fact that the perspective of history was largely relative to the angle of vision and that its color depended upon the tint of our lenses. Justice Holmes in his famous dissents repeatedly warned his colleagues against writing their prejudices into the Constitution. Social-science teachers, heirs to all the ills that afflict the flesh, are of course also subject to the pervasive influence of unrecognized prejudices. As teachers we are further handicapped by another and equally vital factor, which is of special importance in the teaching of current problems. To put the matter more specifically, there is a real danger that we may not think through our teaching to its logical conclusions. This danger is of course aggravated by our limitations of scholarship, limitations which are imposed in part at least by the incessant demands of school routine upon our time and energy.

The following personal illustrations are offered in the hope that they will serve to illustrate the dangers indicated. My teaching started with American History. When I taught the history of the pre-Civil War period, I centered my teaching around several themes, one of which was "The Growth of Nationalism." Looking backward, I am fairly sure that I helped to stir the nationalistic pride of my students. Then when I taught our policy in relation to Latin-America in the second term of the work, I feel equally sure that I helped stimulate a critical attitude towards nationalism. And so curious is the functioning of the mind of man, or perhaps I should say so curious was the functioning of my mind, that I did not realize that I was trying to undo in the second term what I had done in the first term. Apparently, I fully endorsed the policy of not letting my right hand know what my left hand was doing. It would seem quite clear that I had not thought out the implications of my teaching.

The same defect in treatment developed in my teaching of free trade and protective tariffs. Like most other social-science teachers, I had become a convinced advocate of free trade long before I had subjected the problem to thorough analysis. To the extent that I had thought the problem through, my preference for free trade was based on the advantages of a geographic division of labor

as propounded by Adam Smith, and on the doctrine that free trade was a prerequisite of world peace. I had only an intellectual apprehension of the arguments for protective tariffs, particularly the standard of living argument. Under the circumstances, it was to be expected that I should give a ready welcome to facts tending to invalidate that argument, such as the fact that wages in our highly protected textile industry were lower than wages in many unprotected industries, and that wages in pre-war free trade England were higher than wages in protected regions like France and Germany.

It had not yet dawned on me that theories do not operate in a vacuum; that theories usually arise in response to the needs of a powerful interest or one on the road to becoming that. I had not yet realized that free trade was a natural concept for the England of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries when her industrial technique enabled her to undersell all competitors; that free trade, under present conditions, means an open road for capitalists to use the cheap labor of one region to undersell the relatively dear labor of another region; and that the advantages of free trade are dependent upon the existence of an international economic organization based upon an international standard of living, with such anachronistic institutions as economic nationalism and war relegated to the limbo of the obsolete.

In due course of time my classes began to discuss the arguments for and against the national regulation of labor in connection with the attempts of Congress to regulate child labor. I then accepted as a strong argument in favor of national regulation, the fact that laxity in Southern and Western states enabled manufacturers in those regions to undersell the products of states maintaining more rigid child-labor standards.

Although I prided myself on my scientific attitude, I did not perceive my inconsistency in listening sympathetically to the wages' argument in connection with national child-labor regulation, and denying my sympathy to that argument when advanced in connection with protective tariffs. Not until the idea of national planning began to come to the forefront, did I begin to re-examine some of the previously mentioned concepts. This process was of course furthered by the passage of the National Industrial Recovery Act. Here was a program which enlisted my strongest sympathies. Nevertheless one of its cardinal features, the raising of wage standards, seemed incompatible with free trade. Further reading and thought began to suggest the idea that an even more fundamental problem was involved; that the N.R.A. program might lead in diametrically opposed directions.

Having become aware of my own inner incon-

sistencies, I began to wonder to what extent my mental and emotional confusions were typical of social-science teachers. I also began to wonder what sort of seed I was planting in my teaching of national planning; and whether along with the useful seed I was sowing consciously, I was not, quite unconsciously, sowing some virulent weed. The first and most obvious question was whether I was developing in my students an uncritical acceptance of the concept of national planning. More particularly, were my students grasping the fact that national planning is a tool which if used by ignorant, individualistically selfish, or nationalistically selfish leaders will assuredly hasten the very catastrophies which its liberal proponents hope it will enable us to escape. For the sake of clarifying the problem, it might be posed in a group of questions.

(1) Does national planning make intelligent and social-minded leadership more or less necessary?

(2) Is there any likelihood that national planning will become a weapon in the hands of Big Business for the destruction of small business? Is that desirable? If not, is there any avenue of escape?

(3) Will national planning become a weapon for the unchallenged establishment of the autocracy of

Big Business? Or is it possible to develop it as an instrument for the achievement of a progressive degree of social democracy, i.e., a system insuring an ever-closer approach to an equalitarian and coöperative economic and political society?

(4) Will national planning become an instrument for emphasizing the concept that the individual lives by and for the community or state? That is, will it exalt and deify the state? Or can national planning be based upon the fundamental proposition that it shall aim to liberate the generous and noble impulses of the individual?

(5) Is national planning likely to further accentuate nationalistic rivalries? Or can national planning be geared into the mesh of an international system based upon a coöperative division of labor?

Any or all of the dangers indicated and others may fit inevitably into the coming logic of history. If we assume that man can influence that logic, and we as teachers are by that very fact committed to the assumption that man can make his own history, it seems self-evident that we must clarify our own confusions before we can play our proper role. And that in turn implies concentrated thinking based upon a sound and solid foundation of scholarship.

## The Introduction and Use of the Classroom Library in History

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In order to use many of the newer techniques in teaching social science, it is essential to have a well equipped classroom library. One of the problems which presented itself at Thornton Township High School six years ago, when we decided to use the mastery technique, was the problem of securing the proper library facilities. In this article the major steps of the plan used in developing the classroom library in European History are discussed in detail.

### LIMITATIONS OF THE TEXTBOOK

The textbook occupies the dominant position in nearly all of our American classrooms. The average social science teacher is not able to teach without a textbook. In our smaller schools where each instructor teaches several different subjects we may justify teaching history with only the textbook in the classroom. It is an entirely different matter, however, in our larger schools.

We demand in these larger schools a master's degree to secure better teachers. We offer specialized

courses to give our pupils more opportunities in history. Then these teachers go back into many of our classrooms and teach the same textbook in the same way that it is used in our smaller schools. Occasionally one finds in our better high schools an exceptional teacher who is able to supplement the textbook sufficiently to teach a really interesting and worthwhile course in history. Most of our history textbooks are chronological treatments of the basic facts for a certain period of history. They are the skeleton upon which the real "meat" of the course may be placed. Too many history classes never get beyond the skeleton.

History teaching, too often, becomes a specific assignment of a few pages in a textbook to be followed next day by an intensive questioning of what is found in the assignment. Our newer theories in history teaching indicate a need of extensive reading of the opinions of many men before any attempt is made to secure certain vital understandings or appreciations which these many facts are able to give



to the one who is truly trying to learn about them. Seven or eight hundred pages in one textbook is not enough reading material for a year's course in history.

Every teacher in this time of depression realizes the difficulty of getting the members of his class provided with a textbook. Even if free textbooks are provided they are frequently lost. The students leave their books home or forget to take them home and as a result the student is unable to do any work during the class period.

The classroom in history should become a laboratory in which pupils learn through reading history rather than a place where the pupils tell the teacher what they have learned. The teacher must spend more time in helping the pupil learn and less time in testing whether he has learned or not. To do this the classroom must become a laboratory in which the pupil really works. In order to make the history classroom a laboratory it is essential to have a classroom library.

#### DIFFICULTIES IN SECURING ADEQUATE LIBRARY FACILITIES

School administrators have grown accustomed to having history taught in any classroom without extra equipment, except a few maps. Therefore, before we can change the history classroom from an ordinary recitation classroom to a history laboratory we will have to sell the laboratory idea to our administrators. It is easy to secure equipment under ordinary conditions for the industrial shops. Machines that cost more than the entire equipment of a history laboratory will be purchased because the school board and superintendents realize the need of this equipment to properly teach in the industrial arts. Science laboratories are considered a necessity in every well equipped high school. If the social science classrooms and library are to be properly equipped the social science teachers must convince their superintendents of the possibilities of better teaching through the proper use of a larger amount of assimilative material; they must definitely know what equipment is needed and how much it will cost; and they must be sure to use the equipment when it is purchased.

Before library books are bought for history the instructor or history department should determine what the course of study is going to be. Then the books which best fit the assimilative material to be taught should be purchased. We find at Thornton that it is always a good policy to purchase only one copy of a book until we are certain that it is worth duplication.

In our work we distinguish between essential references and supplementary books. The essential references are read by all the pupils while the supplementary references are read primarily by the

superior students. We are very careful in selecting the essential references because a large number of each of these books are purchased.

The most discouraging feature of many school libraries is the failure of the student to use the library that is available. One of the advantages of a classroom library is that the students have easy access to the books. We often make it too difficult for the student to go to the library. In many schools the library is too small to hold the pupils if they were allowed to go. In order to secure adequate library material we must get our students to use the library that we have at the present time. Then we can use this as evidence in convincing our administrators of the library's value to the pupil and the school.

#### HOW THE LIBRARY WAS DEVELOPED AT THORNTON

Six years ago the European history section of the library at Thornton contained sixty-four volumes. Of this number sixteen really were purchased for the study of Latin. Thirty-three were source books on Greek and Roman history which were never used. The little European history that was taught was confined to a study of the textbook.

After a conference with the superintendent and the head of the department \$200 was set aside for the purchase of European history library books. This was not sufficient but it was a start in the right direction.

In order to secure more reading material the students in alternate rows in each class were asked to buy a different book. These pupils exchanged books with each other and thus had the use of two books during the year instead of the one textbook that had been used the previous year. It is impossible to do this satisfactorily in an ordinary classroom recitation group. With the aid of guidesheets, supervised study, and the mastery technique, the plan worked fairly well.

During the second year, 1928-29, the school budget provided \$250 for European history books. The same plan of buying different books in alternate rows was followed, except that each student was required to buy a book each semester. This made four books available to each student. At the end of the year books that were in good shape were bought from the pupils for the library.

This same plan was followed during the 1929-30 school year. The budget for European history books during that year was \$300. About one hundred dollars of this budget was used to buy filing equipment. The rest was spent on books.

Beginning with the school year of 1930-31 our first real classroom library was organized. The students were no longer required to buy a textbook. Instead of buying a textbook they paid a labora-

tory fee of two dollars. One dollar of this fee was used to pay for the mimeographing of two hundred pages of guidesheets and tests which were furnished to each pupil. Twenty-five cents was used for miscellaneous supplies. The remainder, seventy-five cents, was used to buy books for the classroom library. The school library already had a number of books which had been purchased from the students in previous years.

We were handicapped during the first year because we did not always have enough books to go around. It was necessary for the teacher to supplement the assimilative reading where only a small number of books were available.

We followed the same plan for the next two years except that the fee was reduced to one dollar and a half because of the depression. Each year our supply of books increased. As the old books wear out they are either rebound or replaced. The average life of a book that is used a great deal is three years. We always try to use the new books in the classroom library where they are used the most and keep the used copies in the library to be used during the pupil's library period and to be taken home at night.

All the European history books are catalogued as school library books. When books are needed in the classroom library they are withdrawn by the teacher who is using them. If the class has forty pupils in it we find that it is necessary to have about fifteen copies of each important book in the classroom library. The essential reference books listed on the guidesheets vary in number. In a few problems the students only read one or two essential references; in other problems, they are expected to read portions of five or six books. Naturally when the students are expected to read six different books fewer copies are necessary since they do not all need the same book at one time. We find it better even if the pupils are supposed to read only one essential reference to have more than one reference book with this material in it. Some of the students prefer to read one author while others enjoy an author who uses another style of writing. Certain students are very poor readers. They need a fairly elementary type of reading. In as far as possible books of this nature are provided. Elementary reading material is used especially in the early units where we are teaching the pupils how to read history extensively. It takes some students months to learn that we want them to read history rather than memorize facts.

In Table I the sixteen essential references used in European history are given in alphabetical order according to authors. These books are duplicated so as to provide enough books for all students. A book must contain a good discussion of vital assimilative material if it is made an essential refer-

TABLE I  
ESSENTIAL REFERENCE IN EUROPEAN HISTORY FOUND IN THE  
LIBRARY AT THORNTON TOWNSHIP HIGH SCHOOL  
ON OCTOBER 2, 1933

Name of the Author and Title of Book (In alphabetical order)	Number of Copies	No. of Units Used
1. Arneson, <i>Gateway to Social Science</i>	20	4
2. Barnard, <i>Epochs of World Progress</i>	26	7
3. Breasted, <i>Ancient Times</i>	62	4
4. Davis, <i>A Day in Old Rome</i>	23	1
5. Davis, <i>A Day in Old Athens</i>	24	1
6. Fairchild, <i>Element of Social Science</i>	27	1
7. Harding, <i>New Medieval and Modern History</i>	33	3
8. Marshall, <i>Story of Human Progress</i>	23	2
9. Marshall, <i>Readings in the Story of Human Progress</i>	19	2
10. McKinley, <i>World History in Making</i>	85	5
11. McKinley, <i>World History Today</i>	36	2
12. Mills, <i>Ancient World</i>	14	2
13. Osgood, <i>History of Industry</i>	69	6
14. Robinson, <i>Medieval and Modern Times</i>	26	3
15. West, <i>Ancient World</i>	10	3
16. West, <i>Modern World</i>	10	2
Total	507	

ence. Wherever it is possible books are selected that are valuable on more than one unit. The number of books purchased depends on, first, the number of essential references cited for any one particular problem. If you have the pupils read six different books only half as many duplicate copies are needed as when you give only three references. Second, the longer the reference is in any one book the more copies you will need. Third, whenever especially vital material is required from any one book more copies will be needed. Fourth, more copies of each book will be needed at the beginning of the unit when all the pupils are reading the same references.

The number of volumes of each essential reference book that we have is listed in the second column of Table I. We are able to take care of 240 students with these books satisfactorily during the day. At night the pupils are allowed to take books home from the library. Sometimes we run short of certain books. The total number of essential books on hand is 507 copies.

The number of units that these books are used in varies from one unit in the case of Davis, *A Day in Old Rome* to seven units for Barnard and Roorbach, *Epochs of World Progress*.

In Table II an alphabetical list of the supplementary references is given. These books are read primarily by the superior students. We have only made a start in the development of this part of our library. We need more copies of books that we now have and many new volumes. We have been able to buy so far 123 different books, the number of copies of each varying to make a total of 433 supplementary books available.



TABLE II

SUPPLEMENTARY REFERENCES IN EUROPEAN HISTORY FOUND IN  
THE LIBRARY AT THORNTON TOWNSHIP HIGH SCHOOL  
ON OCTOBER 2, 1933

Name of the Author and Title of the Book (In alphabetical order)	Number of Copies
1. Adams, <i>Civilization During the Middle Age</i>	2
2. Adams, <i>Growth of French Nation</i>	2
3. Atkinson, <i>An Introduction to American History</i>	6
4. Banks, <i>The Seven Wonders of the World</i>	4
5. Beard, <i>Our Old World Background</i>	1
6. Blunner, <i>The Home Life of the Ancient Greeks</i>	2
7. Botsford, <i>A Brief History of the World</i>	1
8. Bourne, <i>The Revolutionary Period in Europe</i>	1
9. Breasted, <i>History of Egypt</i>	1
10. Brooks, <i>The Story of Marco Polo</i>	1
11. Bryce, <i>Holy Roman Empire</i>	1
12. Burnham, <i>Our Beginnings in Europe</i>	7
13. Bury, <i>A Students History of Greece</i>	2
14. Cheyney, <i>European Background of American History</i>	10
15. Church, <i>Roman Life in the Days of Cicero</i>	1
16. Clodd, <i>The Story of Primitive Man</i>	2
17. Cobb, <i>Pathways of European People</i>	1
18. Coulter, <i>Evolution</i>	2
19. Creasy, <i>The Fifteen Decisive Battles of the World</i>	2
20. Davis, <i>Life on a Medieval Barony</i>	3
21. Davis, <i>Charlemagne</i>	1
22. Davis, <i>The Kaiser as I Know Him</i>	1
23. Davis, <i>Readings in Ancient History, Rome</i>	19
24. Davis, <i>Readings in Ancient History, Greece</i>	14
25. Day, <i>History of Commerce</i>	3
26. Elliot, <i>Prehistoric Man and His Story</i>	1
27. Elson, <i>Modern Times and Living Past</i>	1
28. Ely, <i>Studies in the Evolution of Industrial Society</i>	3
29. Emerton, <i>Introduction to the Study of the Middle Ages</i>	6
30. Fling, <i>A Source Book of Greek History</i>	1
31. Fowler, <i>Roman Festivals</i>	1
32. Frank, <i>A History of Rome</i>	1
33. Fyffe, <i>A History of Modern Europe</i>	1
34. Gardner, <i>Art Through the Ages</i>	1
35. Garnett, <i>Turkey of the Ottomans</i>	1
36. Goodyear, <i>History of Art</i>	1
37. Gordy, <i>American Beginnings in Europe</i>	2
38. Guerard, <i>French Civilization in 19th Century</i>	1
39. Guerber, <i>The Story of the English</i>	9
40. Guerber, <i>The Story of Modern France</i>	10
41. Guerber, <i>The Story of Old France</i>	6
42. Guerber, <i>Legends of the Middle Ages</i>	8
43. Guerber, <i>Myths of Rome and Greece</i>	15
44. Guizot, <i>History of France in 8 Volumes</i>	8
45. Guizot, <i>History of France</i>	1
46. Gulich, <i>The Life of the Ancient Greeks</i>	3
47. Haddon, <i>The Wanderings of People</i>	3
48. Halleck, <i>Our National Heritage</i>	4
49. Harding, <i>Old World Background to American History</i>	3
50. Hayes, <i>Modern History</i>	1
51. Hayes, <i>A Political and Social History of Modern Europe Vol. 1</i>	3
52. Hayes, <i>A Political and Social History of Modern Europe Vol. 2</i>	3
53. Hayes, <i>A Brief History of Great War</i>	3

TABLE II (Continued)

Name of the Author and Title of the Book (In alphabetical order)	Number of Copies
54. Hazen, <i>Europe Since 1815</i>	3
55. Henderson, <i>A Short History of Germany</i>	2
56. Hudson, <i>Story of the Renaissance</i>	3
57. Ilbert, <i>Parliament</i>	3
58. Johnston, <i>The Private Life of the Romans</i>	2
59. Lowler, <i>The Gateway to American History</i>	3
60. Literary Digest, <i>History of World War in 8 Vol.</i>	8
61. Lodge, <i>The Close of the Middle Ages</i>	1
62. Lowell, <i>French Revolution</i>	1
63. Mahaffy, <i>Social Life in Greece</i>	1
64. Mason, <i>Woman's Share in Primitive Culture</i>	4
65. Maspero, <i>Life in Ancient Egypt</i>	1
66. Marshall, <i>Scotlands Story</i>	1
67. Mathews, <i>French Revolution</i>	2
68. McCarthy, <i>A History of Our Own Times</i>	1
69. McNeal, <i>Modern Europe and Its Beginnings</i>	6
70. Moon, <i>Imperialism</i>	3
71. Muir, <i>Expansion of Europe</i>	2
72. Munro, <i>A Source Book of Roman History</i>	1
73. Munro, <i>Middle Ages</i>	2
74. Myers, <i>History of Greece</i>	9
75. Myers, <i>Ancient History</i>	3
76. Nettleton, <i>Old Testament Narratives</i>	12
77. Nida, <i>Dawn of American History in Europe</i>	5
78. Ogg, <i>A Source Book of Medieval History</i>	2
79. Osborn, <i>Men of the Old Stone Age</i>	1
80. Palmer, <i>Odyssey of Homer</i>	7
81. Perkins, <i>A History of European Peoples</i>	1
82. Poland, <i>Famous Men of Middle Ages</i>	5
83. Preston, & Dodge, <i>The Private Life of the Romans</i>	3
84. Pyle, <i>Story of King Arthur</i>	1
85. Quennell, <i>History of Everyday Things in England</i>	2
86. Robinson, <i>An Introduction to the History of Western Europe</i>	2
87. Robinson, <i>History of Europe, Ancient and Medieval</i>	9
88. Robinson, <i>Ordeal of Civilization</i>	2
89. Robinson, <i>Readings in Modern European History</i>	2
90. Schapiro, <i>A History of Europe</i>	3
91. Schapiro, <i>Modern and Contemporary European History</i>	1
92. Schevill, <i>A History of Europe</i>	3
93. Seignobos, <i>Europe Since 1814</i>	1
94. Seignobos, <i>History of Medieval and Modern Civilization</i>	1
95. Seignobos, <i>History of Ancient Civilization</i>	6
96. Shaw, <i>Trends of Civilization and Culture</i>	5
97. Smallwood, <i>Man The Animal</i>	1
98. Smith, <i>Martin Luther</i>	1
99. Tappan, <i>Story of Greek People</i>	2
100. Tappan, <i>Old World Hero Stories</i>	4
101. Tappan, <i>When Knights were Bold</i>	4
102. Tappan, <i>Englands Story</i>	1
103. Terry, <i>History of England</i>	1
104. Thatcher, <i>Short History</i>	1
105. Thatcher, <i>Europe in the Middle Ages</i>	9
106. Thompson, <i>The Civilization of the Renaissance</i>	10
107. Thorndike, <i>A Short History of Civilization</i>	4
108. Tucker, <i>Life in Ancient Athens</i>	2
109. Tucker, <i>Life in Roman World</i>	1
110. Tyler, <i>Primitive Culture</i>	2

TABLE II (Continued)

Name of the Author and Title of the Book (In alphabetical order)	Number of Copies
111. Usher, <i>Pan Germanism</i>	1
112. Van Loon, <i>The Story of Mankind</i>	8
113. Van Bulon, <i>Imperial Germany</i>	1
114. Von Bernhardt, <i>Germany and the Next War</i>	4
115. Waterloo, <i>Story of Ab</i>	10
116. Webster, <i>Ancient History</i>	1
117. Webster, <i>Readings in Ancient History</i>	1
118. Webster, <i>General History of Commerce</i>	3
119. Wells, <i>Outline of History</i>	9
120. West, <i>The Story of Mans Early Progress</i>	5
121. West, <i>A Short History of Modern Peoples</i>	15
122. Westerman, <i>The Story of Ancient Nations</i>	3
123. Zimmern, <i>The Home Life of the Romans</i>	2
Total	433

These library books are used in three different ways. Some of the essential references are taken to the classroom library where they are used during the regular class period by the pupils. When a book is no longer used in the classroom it is returned to the library.

Most of the essential and supplementary references are kept in the library where they are used by the students in their regular library period. Every student has one regular library period in addition to his class period in European history.

At the end of the school day students are allowed to take books home over night. A record is kept of every book taken home. An examination of this record shows that some pupils take a book home nearly every evening. The average number of books taken home for a two-week period was 41 volumes an evening. On certain days, especially Friday, over a hundred European history books are checked out by the librarian. One day a record of 122 books were taken home. These books are taken home voluntarily after one period of work on history outside of class has already been done in school.

In the *Rivista Storica Italiana* for November, A. Pascal has an interesting study of the religious emigration of the Lucchese to Geneva in the sixteenth century, the fourth installment of a study of existing documents, one important result of which is to show how many branches of leading Catholic families were in this group.

#### THE FUTURE LIBRARY AT THORNTON TOWNSHIP HIGH SCHOOL

The depression has cut our budget for European history from 300 dollars to sixty-five dollars. Our student laboratory fee has been cut from two dollars to one dollar and fifty cents. This has greatly curtailed the expansion of our library. We are forced to spend most of our budget for re-binding and replacing worn out books. We are not able to add new volumes as rapidly as we wish.

Our supplementary library will be improved as soon as we are able to get more money for the European history budget.

We have also tentatively planned for a better classroom library. At the present time the books are kept in the back of the room where the pupils get them as the need arises. We hope sometime in the future to have individual desk libraries. This will give each pupil all the essential references he needs right at his desk. He will not have to waste time going to the back of the room to secure a book. The reason we do not do this at the present time is due to the fact that our present desks are not properly equipped to hold these books. We also lack sufficient funds at the present time to equip every desk in this manner.

#### CONCLUSION

In this paper we have traced the development of the library facilities in European history at Thornton from a small library of sixty-four volumes in a school of 950 students to a 940 volume library in a school of 1900 students. We hope that the discussion of the manner of this growth may be of aid to other schools in the development of their libraries.

When students learn to read history extensively we have accomplished much in our history teaching. A good library makes history live. We hope to keep our library in constant use because we feel it is the key to successful history teaching.

New light is thrown on the late Renaissance by Otis H. Green's "Literary Court of the Conde de Lemos at Naples, 1610-1616," published in the autumn number of the *Hispanic Review*. The Conde was Viceroy of the kingdom and seizes the opportunity to revel in magnificence such as he considered an appanage of his office.

# The Charles William Eliot Centennial

LUTHER E. WARREN  
Mount Union College

It is fitting that on March 20, 1934, schoolmen, the world over, recall the great work of Charles William Eliot who was born a hundred years ago. When thirty-five he became President of Harvard University at Cambridge, Massachusetts, the oldest educational institution of higher learning in the United States, it being founded as "The College" in 1636, only sixteen years after the first settlers came to New England. When Eliot took its Presidency in 1869 it was a small, and a relatively provincial college, but at the end of forty years, in 1909, he left it a cosmopolitan university of high rank. From that time he continued an active life of hard work for most of the seventeen years remaining to him. A world citizen, he was honored by having twenty-six degrees or other major honors bestowed upon him by universities or other societies in eight different countries.

A careful reading of his books, addresses, periodical articles, memoranda, and letters netted over sixteen hundred very interesting quotations. Almost eleven hundred of these have not been printed. They can be arranged under one hundred topics of moment to persons interested in education.

Eliot often spoke concerning "Peace," a subject very near his heart, was an ardent advocate of the League of Nations, and did all in his power to cause the United States of America to become an active member of both the League and the World Court. We quote, in part, a letter he wrote to President Woodrow Wilson.

"November 17, 1918.

"The pressing problems now are, how to help reorganize Russia, how to prevent Germany from going the Russian way, and how to organize a limited, safe, preliminary league to enforce peace from now on and abolish militarism and its economic burdens with all possible speed. . . . To construct a League to enforce Peace, available at once, solid, harmonious, expansible, and likely to last is a task of alluring difficulty."

A very interesting letter is one to Viscount Kaneko of Japan.

"March 26, 1919.

"So far as I can see, the first step towards a better world for future generations is to abolish

militarism. That is, to maintain no class of men whose only occupation is war and keeping prepared for war. Toward the destruction of militarism the League of Nations is the only instrument ever created and set to work. Therefore, all the Powers that really mean to prevent war in the future should hold fast to the League of Nations, and through it push steadily toward the abolition of militarism."

Eliot never hesitated to act if he thought he could exert a beneficial influence. The following to F. J. Reynolds, of *Colliers* (publishers), is a sample of several letters written to influential periodicals in the United States.

"July 25, 1919.

"I hope *Collier's Weekly* is doing everything in its power to procure the prompt ratification of the Covenant and Treaty. It would be nothing short of a moral catastrophe for America if the Senate minority should succeed in defeating ratification."

Independent in politics, he was both an active protagonist for a cause he deemed worthy and a dangerous antagonist against one he considered wrong. A letter to Dr. W. W. Keen illustrates these facts.

"November 8, 1920.

"My article in the October *Atlantic* was not written in advocacy of President Wilson's character and career. Its objects were, first, if possible, to draw away some republicans from the support of a candidate who declared his purpose was to reject or 'scrap' the League of Nations; and secondly, to furnish future historians with a contemporaneous description of the contribution the American people and Government made toward stable international peace down till July, 1919.

"I refuse to believe that the present leaders of the Republican Party are going to succeed in keeping the American people out of a working League of Nations. I refuse to believe that the American people is going to be long deceived by the present talk against idealism, self-sacrifice, and world helpfulness."

James Bryce (Eliot never used a title in writing to him) had recently been appointed Ambassador to the United States from Great Britain, when Eliot wrote him as follows:



"January 4, 1907.

"Is there any better work in the world than the direct promotion of goodwill among men, and is there any more desirable place to promote goodwill than just between England and America?"

That Eliot believed firmly that the adventurer should take the risk is shown in the quotation from a letter to President Woodrow Wilson, concerning the policy the government of the United States of America should follow in dealing with the government of Mexico.

"April 29, 1914.

"Commit the Government and people of the United States thoroughly against the ancient policy of protecting and supporting by force of arms the citizens or subjects of a strong nation, who venture of their own accord into foreign lands, with or without capital, to trade, manufacture, mine, hunt, explore, or travel, or to propagate the national religion, and against the practice of sending punitive expeditions and demanding indemnities where adventurous citizens or subjects suffer injuries in foreign lands."

Eliot's approval of the policy President Woodrow Wilson pursued in regard to Mexico is given in two letters.

To Mark Sullivan,

"July 2, 1914.

"Do you fully recognize the splendor of the contribution which President Wilson will make to the

progress of civilization, if he succeeds in his Mexican policy? A successful issue is well worth working for, not for months only, but for years. Even if the final and complete project fails of consummation, the gains already made towards international peace through the refusal to intervene in Mexico by force of arms, and the acceptance of mediation will be greater than any government in the world has ever made before."

To Lord James Bryce,

"July 28, 1914.

"Wilson's refusal to intervene by force of arms in Mexico for the protection of American lives and investments seems to me the best thing that has been done for the peace of the world by any government—ancient or modern."

In the letter to Mark Sullivan is one sentence which is typical of Eliot: "A successful issue is well worth working for, not for months only, but for years." On another occasion he said, "It is now nearly sixty years since I began to work toward some educational reforms." Again, "Is not that the way in which gains . . . have been made . . . always step by step?" And to James Bryce, "I am always trying to get people to take one more step—it may be a very short one—in the direction which seems right." Persistence was one of his strong traits.

Charles W. Eliot, seer, world citizen, was born one hundred years ago on March 20, 1834. This centennial should be remembered.

## Drawing and Evaluating Maps

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Several years ago on my desk lay a pile of maps of Italy, which one of my tenth grade classes in history had handed in. I was in a quandary, trying to decide upon the specific qualities of workmanship to be kept in mind when engaged in evaluating each map. To give each sample of adolescent cartography a mark which would more nearly represent its own particular degree of excellence than the marks usually had in the past was an aim to be achieved. But at that moment I had no very definite objective standards in mind which might form the basis of the judgments. I felt the need of employing a method of scoring which would provide greater objectivity in the process, which would be based upon specific shortcomings or evidences of attainment, rather than upon "general impression," which would draw the attention of a pupil to ways in which he could improve his work and, finally,

which would result in a mark he would acknowledge as reasonably fair. Where the real root of the trouble lay was soon discovered.

"By what right does Mabel rate an 'A' when all I get is a 'C'?" Phyllis had protested ten days before when a different set of maps had been returned. "I fail to see in what respects her map is so much better than mine." She slammed the door of her locker, expressed her sense of injustice, told the world she'd never put forth her best effort again and strode off. I watched her ruefully, though covertly, feeling guilty and doubting whether I could say in exactly what respects Mabel's map was better. Obviously there was something wrong with the technique.

Then, very slowly, a solution of the problem began to evolve itself out of my perplexed conscience. The root of the trouble, in the premises, lay not so

much in any intentional injustice, but in not having provided the pupils with definite and specific standards by which their work could be judged. Stated otherwise, if they could have had some very definite and specific directions to follow in drawing, lettering, and coloring their maps, and if they could have been carefully drilled in the use of these directions, it would have been possible to judge that set according to the fidelity with which those directions had been followed. Moreover, the pupils would know the basis upon which the teacher's judgment rested, and there would be less excuse for heaping imprecations upon his head. This ray of light made it possible to contemplate the pile of maps with less gloomy forebodings.

These reflections were interrupted by a cheery voice. "Don't take it so hard." It was personable Pete Ross, a frank and altogether likeable lad, one of the members of the class.

"But it can't be taken lightly," I countered, returning one of those smiles that are a part of the precious compensation of teaching. Then I explained the predicament I was in, bearing down especially hard upon the seeming lack of justice in my method of scoring, and condemning myself for not having devised some directions for the pupils to follow in drawing and in evaluating their maps, and for not having trained them in their use.

"Why not work out some with the class? Everybody'll help," Pete proposed.

I pounced avidly upon the suggestion since it was a perfectly logical one. We had employed that very procedure several times already—for preparing assignments; for taking notes on cards; for preparing oral and written compositions; and for carrying on several other activities more or less peculiar to study and classroom work in the social sciences. We would need to draw a number of maps before our high school days were over, and if we could learn to draw them quickly and well, either from models or from memory, a distinct gain would be made. Thus why not again employ the procedure of working out a set of directions? I decided to meet the challenge in Pete's suggestion.

As the possibilities of the project became clearer, the steps by which it could be carried out became clearer also. We would socialize the procedure. The pupils could use the maps in this set and those of the previous set, together with a good wall-map, for purposes of study and comparison in working out their directions. Having done this they could evaluate their maps now and at any future time in the light of the standards they themselves had agreed upon. Everything was made ready, therefore; explanations were given and the coöperative project begun.

The class was interested from the beginning to

the end of the hour. Phyllis proposed that first we draw a rectangular border around our map papers, leaving a margin of about an inch on each side, and that we make the same number of horizontal and vertical divisions within the rectangle as were made by the lines of latitude and longitude shown on the wall-map. As soon as she had done this on her own paper she made the discovery that the long axis of the map she had already drawn ran at the wrong angle to the horizontal. A study of the model map brought out that this axis lies at an angle of  $45^{\circ}$  to the horizontal, or to the equator. She observed, also, that an axis drawn through the center of Italy at right angles to the long axis passes through Rome and lies about half way between Genoa and the southwestern extremity of the peninsula. Natalie noted that the length of Italy is approximately four or four and a half times its average width, and that in general outline it resembles a boot. It was Mabel's contribution that we should, if possible, at least in our imaginations, divide the map serving as a model into two or more major divisions, one or more of which might remind us of some familiar object or figure.

We were now ready to consider suggestions which would help us get precise locations, correct relative sizes and proper length of geographical and political features. Sylvia said that we should take care to give boundaries, shorelines, rivers, and mountain chains their proper directions or "slant," this to be accomplished by noticing how far the different points along these features were from the lines of latitude and longitude and from the axes of the model map, or where they crossed these lines. She suggested, also that we take care to give any areas shown their proper relative sizes, and that we make a scale of miles and use it in checking lengths and distances.

An interesting proposal was now made by Pete: that we see what peculiar characteristics we could discover, not only of the map of Italy, but also of the maps of Africa and South America, large wall-maps of which continents were hanging in full view in the room.

After several minutes of study and note-taking, the following characteristics were discovered by different members of the class: that in Italy, the eastern shore-line is divided naturally into three approximately equal parts, the distance from the head of the Adriatic Sea to Ancona being about equal to the distance from Ancona to Cape Gargano, and about equal to the distance from Cape Gargano to Otranto down in the "heel" of the boot; that, on the southern shore, the distance from Otranto to Cape Collonne is approximately equal to the distance from the latter point of land to the tip of the "toe"; that, in Africa, if a straight

line be drawn due northward from the city of Victoria, on the Gulf of Guinea, it will come out at Cape Blanco, on the southern shore of the Mediterranean Sea; and that if another line be drawn straight eastward from Victoria to the Indian Ocean, the two lines thus drawn will divide the continent into three parts of which that to the west of the north and south line is the smallest, that to the south of the east and west line is the largest, and that between the two lines is second in size; that the shore-line of the smallest part resembles a sagging semi-circle; that of the middle part, together with the western shore-line of the Red Sea, an elongated letter "W," and that south of the east and west line a letter "V"; that Alexandria is half way between the Strait of Gibraltar and Cape Guardafui at the eastern extremity of the continent; that Cape Agulhas, near the Cape of Good Hope, is directly south of the city of Barca on the southern shore of the Mediterranean, and that Barca, in turn, is half way between Tunis and Port Said, the latter at the entrance to the Suez Canal; that, in South America, if two straight lines be drawn from Africa in northern Chile, one to Cape Branco in eastern Brazil, and the other to the estuary of the Amazon River, the continent is divided into three parts of which that between the two lines is the smallest, that to the northwest is second in size and that to the south of the line first drawn is the largest; that the part to the northwest resembles an old-fashioned chocolate-drop, while the largest area resembles an isosceles triangle of which the base is the long shore-line extending from Cape Branco to the city of Magellan; that this long shore-line is divided into three approximately equal parts by the cities of Rio de Janeiro and Buenos Aires.

Several other interesting characteristics were discovered, but the class decided we had gone far enough to enable us to put into definite form the directions we wished to formulate. The project continued, however, until we were ready to formulate two additional sets of directions, one for lettering and one for coloring our maps.

As finally stated these directions read as follows:

#### A. Directions for drawing maps.

1. Draw a border or "frame" for your map of which the ratio of the length to the breadth will be the same as that around the map serving as a model, this border to include an area large enough to accommodate a map of a size sufficient to show, without crowding, whatever you wish to put on your map. Mark off within this border rectangular spaces to correspond to those made by the lines of latitude and longitude of the model.
2. Draw two axes, one of which will form with your lines of latitude and longitude the same angles the axes of the model forms with their lines of latitude and longitude, making sure that your axes cross your lines of latitude and longitude at the proper points.
3. Note any peculiar characteristics of the model as to length, breadth, area, and form, and the position of

these characteristics with reference to the lines of latitude and longitude and the axes you have drawn. Then indicate by light pencil-marks the positions of these characteristics within the rectangles made by your lines of latitude and longitude.

4. With pencil, sketch in lightly the main outline of your map and such geographical and political features as you wish to show, being guided in their location by the lines of latitude and longitude, by the axes you have drawn, and by the light pencil-marks you have made.
5. Draw a scale of miles the total length of which (in inches) will bear the same ratio to the distance between two selected points on your map as the total length of the scale of the model bears to the distance between two corresponding points on the model. Check positions of features, lengths, and distances, and make necessary corrections.
6. Strengthen the lines of your map with pencil or, if you prefer, go over them with ink.

#### B. Lettering

1. Complete all lettering before any part of the map is colored and after all of the features have been drawn in.
2. Print names in such a way as to be read with a minimum amount of turning of your map.
3. In general, let the size of the letters reflect the importance of the feature named.
4. Distribute the letters of a name over or along a feature so as to give balance and symmetry to their distribution with respect to the feature lettered.
5. Letters in names should be as simple as possible, the initial letter always a capital.
6. In general, the style, height, width, slant, and space between the letters in any name should be uniform, and the density of the lines of which the letters are made should be uniform also.

#### C. Coloring

1. Begin to color only after all of the drawing and lettering has been done.
2. Use only the lighter shades of colors; the lettering shows through better and the lighter shades make more attractive maps.
3. Use contrasting colors for different geographical and political features, especially when these features are adjacent, coloring boundaries only; shore-lines always in blue.
4. Use the same color, or a slightly different shade of the same color for colonial possessions and dependencies as you use for the mother country.

Having agreed upon these directions, the pupils expressed a desire to re-grade their old maps as well as the maps of Italy just handed back, using the main ideas in these directions as guides in making up their grades. Acting upon their request, I prepared the following paragraph and list of points, which were mimeographed and the following Monday distributed to the members of the class.

For each of the ten points in the following list, evaluate the feature of your map which that point bears upon, giving yourself a grade of from 1 to 10 depending upon the success with which you believe you have executed that feature. The sum of the ten grades which result from this process can be translated into a letter-mark according to the following scale: A = 100 — 90, B = 89 — 80, C = 79 — 70, D = 69 — 60, E = 59 — 0.

You can judge the equality of your maps according to the

1. Accuracy and skill shown in laying out the border, axes, lines of longitude and latitude and, if any were drawn, lines which mark off the areas into which the map is divided.



2. Position of the map with reference to the axes, lines of longitude and latitude and lines which mark off the areas into which the map is divided.
3. Adequacy as to size, and accuracy of general outline.
4. Relative proportions and fidelity to detail of geographical and political features.
5. Relative proportions of lengths and distances.
6. Accuracy and skill shown in laying out the scale of miles, and clearness and completeness of accompanying explanations.
7. Size, style and quality of lettering.
8. Position of names of geographical features and distribution of letters of names over or along these features.
9. Choice and application of colors.
10. Neatness and general appearance as based upon the foregoing nine points.

While the pupils were re-grading their first set of maps, I graded the maps of Italy, keeping my letter-marks secret until the pupils had finished and had translated their grades into letter-marks. Comparisons were then made between the letter-marks I had given the pupils and those they had given themselves. This procedure brought out several interesting results. Of the total of thirty such marks on the first set, five pupils rated themselves higher than I had, eleven lower, and fourteen the same. On the second set, four rated themselves higher than I had, seven lower, and nineteen the same. In the work of re-marking, Mabel gave herself an "A," Phyllis gave herself a "D," and poor Pete, after dropping himself from a "C" to an "E" expressed mock sorrow for ever having suggested

the project of working out the directions upon which our judgments had been based.

But in spite of Pete, a great deal of genuine good came out of the project. The pupils came to realize that the task of marking maps involved more and was a more delicate task than they had at first supposed. They saw that no prejudice or favoritism had influenced the marks previously given, even though the standards had not been very clearly defined. Hereafter, too, they would know the basis upon which my judgment of their work would rest and I, on my part, could evaluate their work much more accurately than I ever had done before. No more would I hear such protestations as Phyllis had made. Henceforth she could appraise her own work better and understand by what right Mabel rated an "A."

What was just suggested with regard to Phyllis applies to all the others. Since each pupil had had a share in formulating the directions and the standards, he was bound to accept with better grace a mark based upon the fidelity with which those directions had been followed. Moreover, he could see the fine qualities of his work as well as its shortcomings, see wherein he had done well and where he had not, and see whether or not he was gaining in map-drawing skill. Finally, he could be a judge of his own progress and thus find a joy in his work he had not known before.

## A Brief History of the College Board Entrance Examinations in History<sup>1</sup>

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### HISTORY OF THE EXAMINATIONS

The College Entrance Examination Board was organized largely as a result of the widespread agitation for uniform college admission standards during the late nineteenth century. Before 1900 there had been practically no uniformity in college entrance requirements and educators realized that some action was needed to obtain it.<sup>2</sup> The first step in this direction was taken at a conference of New England colleges held at Trinity College, Hartford, Connecticut, in December 1879, involving, however, only the New England Colleges represented.<sup>3</sup> The earliest attempt at uniformity on a national scale was made by a Committee of Ten, appointed by the National Education Association in 1892, whose work was supplemented by other reports, including that of the Committee on College Entrance Requirements appointed at a con-

vention of the Department of Secondary Education of the N.E.A.<sup>4</sup> The final report of the committee was made in July 1899.<sup>5</sup>

Formal organization of the College Entrance Examination Board took place on November 17, 1900 at a meeting held at Columbia University. The new organization was hailed enthusiastically by most prominent educators, and great promise was held for the new venture.

The first examinations of the Board were conducted in June 1901. The examining staff in history included:

Lucy Maynard Salmon, Chief Examiner  
William Isaac Hull  
Henry Pitt Warren.

College entrance examinations provoke a perennial controversy among teachers and administrators of both secondary schools and colleges. If for

no other reason, the problem would be of great importance because of the large number of young people involved, for whom entrance examinations are a matter of crucial importance.

TABLE I  
NUMBER OF CANDIDATES WHO TOOK THE HISTORY EXAMINATIONS  
OF THE COLLEGE BOARD EACH JUNE FROM 1901  
TO 1932, AND THE PERCENTAGE WHO PASSED

Date	Number of candidates taking the examinations		Percentage passing examinations	
	old plan	new plan	old plan	new plan
1901	635		71.1%	
02	961		59.2	
03	1068		53.2	
04	1053		53.7	
05	1324		54.0	
06	1370		47.3	
07	1671		43.2	
08	1576		50.3	
09	1711		50.6	
1910	1854		37.5	
11	1903		45.6	
12	1790		33.8	
13	1862		38.1	
14	2001		34.4	
15	1966		31.8	
16	4496	10	29.1	80.0%
17	3621	43	42.1	16.2
18	4172	29	37.9	34.5
19	4871	365	34.2	34.8
1920	5431	593	40.3	41.5
21	6576	623	48.4	43.0
22	6890	574	57.2	48.6
23	7276	488	52.1	32.1
24	7707	624	52.7	54.5
25	7612	724	57.1	64.4
26	7564	858	55.2	53.1
27	7515	928	61.1	67.7
28	7161	1248	53.6	57.5
29	6314	1556	57.3	61.2
1930	6006	1718	58.8	64.6
31	5532	1791	57.4	61.9

As a basis for the examinations in history, the examiners used the report of the Committee of Seven of the American Historical Association which had been published in 1899 under the title, "The Study of History in The Schools."<sup>6</sup> The examinations, it was announced, were "framed to require comparison and the use of judgment on the pupils' part rather than the mere use of memory."<sup>7</sup>

In 1907, a committee of five was authorized by the American Historical Association in answer to a petition from the Headmasters Association proposing that certain changes be made in the report of the Committee of Seven. It was asked that the extent of the field in ancient history be modified and that the "over-emphasis" on the desirability of cultivating the reasoning faculty rather than "mere memory" be cut down.

When the Committee of Five made its report, the Board asked its examiners to follow the recom-

mendations of this committee in framing examinations on the four fields of history designated by the Committee of Seven.<sup>8</sup> Inasmuch as the Committee of Five advocated no radical changes, considerable dissatisfaction with the history requirement persisted. Consequently, in November 1916, the Board authorized the appointment of another commission to formulate a more detailed statement of the history requirements.<sup>9</sup> The examinations given in June 1919 conformed to the suggestions of this committee which were based on the fundamental principles contained in the reports of the Committee of Seven and the Committee of Five.

The agitation for a change in the history requirements probably was caused, in the last analysis, by the large percentage of failures on the history examinations. From 1910 to 1919, inclusive, a smaller percentage of candidates was successful in passing the history examinations than in passing the examinations in any other subject. In June 1916, for example, only 29.1 per cent of the candidates taking the Old Plan examinations in history attained a passing grade.

TABLE II  
NUMBER OF CANDIDATES WHO TOOK THE EXAMINATIONS OF THE  
COLLEGE BOARD, 1901 TO 1919, INCLUSIVE, AND THE  
PERCENT PASSING THE EXAMINATIONS<sup>10</sup>

Examination (old plan)	Number of candidates who took examinations, 1901-1919	Percent of candidates who received a passing grade*
Greek	8048	66.1%
French	31602	61.9
Latin	71496	58.1
Physics	11079	54.9
Chemistry	6441	52.1
Mathematics	78232	51.1
German	23207	49.7
English	44136	45.2
History	28536	35.9

\* A passing grade is 60% or over.

Various reasons have been advanced to explain the heavy mortality in the history examinations. Edgar Dawson stated that the unduly large percentage of failures was caused by the fact that many candidates took them without proper, systematic preparation in school. The great majority of history teachers, however, preferred to believe that the requirements of the Board were at fault. It was claimed that these requirements were improperly defined and that as a result the candidates could not be adequately prepared. Doubtless there was much justification for this contention.

At any rate, the Board recognized the discontent and in April 1921 authorized the appointment of another commission to revise the definition of the requirements in history "with a view to their radical simplification."<sup>11</sup> The report of this com-

mission was based on reports of the two previous committees (the Committee of Seven and the Committee of Five), and on the recommendations of a special committee appointed by the New England History Teachers' Association.<sup>12</sup> It was submitted for the approval of the Board on November 4, 1922 and adopted on April 21, 1923. Examinations in conformance with its recommendations were first held in June 1924, the limits of the four fields of history being narrowed considerably.<sup>13</sup> In the following year, the one-half units in Civil Government and the comprehensive examinations in history were discontinued.

Since 1924 there has been no change in the history requirements of the Board despite an increasing demand for a limitation of the scope of the examinations, and particularly of those in American history. It is agreed widely that the examinations call for too many relatively unimportant details, and that, as a result, courses in American history must be largely devoted to drilling pupils for the examinations. That administrators as well as teachers recognize this situation is indicated by the following statement written by Mr. F. Alden Shaw, Headmaster of the Detroit Country Day School: "... Furthermore, I wonder whether most people realize that the College Board no longer stresses mere facts. The English examination has become a test of creativeness and appreciation. . . . In fact, history is about the only subject in which the accumulation of facts plays the greatest part."<sup>14</sup>

That this indictment is true, at least to a great extent, is shown by a study of the examinations in history. Although genuine progress has been made in their construction since 1901, the emphasis on purely factual knowledge is plainly evident in spite of the original recommendations to the contrary of the Committee of Seven and their reiteration by the Committee of Five.

In an effort to obtain a more satisfactory method of examining its candidates, the College Entrance Examination Board in 1916 introduced the so-called New Plan of admission, which requires a candidate to take only four examinations, one of which may be in history. The results of these four comprehensive examinations, together with other evidence concerning the candidate's previous record and his scholastic aptitude, form the basis of admission to college.

The comprehensive examinations in history remained the same, with some slight variations, from 1916 until 1925. The candidate simply selected one of the five divisions of the examination paper and answered six or seven questions from this division. If he had studied no other field of history, he wrote an essay or two on topics in this same division. But

if he had studied other fields of history, he was expected to write his essays on topics chosen from other divisions of the examination paper. The Board was disappointed, however, in the quality of the essays turned in. Furthermore, the candidates almost invariably wrote these essays in the field in which they answered the questions. In view of these facts, the committee which reported to the Board in November 1922 recommended that the comprehensive examinations in history to be discontinued. Beginning in 1925, the comprehensive and the Old Plan examinations were made identical.

A glance at Table I shows how rapidly the New Plan has gained in favor. Studies at Harvard and Yale, and a detailed investigation by Dr. A. D. Whitman indicate its superiority over the Old Plan.<sup>15</sup>

#### FIELDS OF THE EXAMINATIONS

The data concerning the fields of history covered by the examinations have been summarized, for convenience and brevity, in Table III. The general tendency has been toward a reduction in the number of examinations.

TABLE III  
EXAMINATIONS SET BY THE BOARD TO COVER THE  
FIELDS OF HISTORY

Field of History	Examinations covering the field 1901-1932	Dates (inclusive)
A. Ancient History	1. Greek History . . . . .	1901-1903
	2. Roman History . . . . .	1901-1903
	3. Greek and Roman History . . . . .	1901
	4. Ancient History . . . . .	1902-1932
B. Medieval and Modern History	1. Medieval and Modern History . . . . .	1901-1923
	2. Modern European History . . . . .	1918-1923
	3. European History (Medieval and Modern History or Modern European History) . . . . .	1924-1932
C. English History	1. English History . . . . .	1901-1932
	2. English and American History . . . . .	1901-1903
D. American History	1. American History . . . . .	1901-1912 1920-1923 1929
	2. American History (with or without Civil Government) . . . . .	1924-1928
	3. American History with Civil Government . . . . .	1913-1923 1930-1932
E. Civil Government	1. Civil Government ( $\frac{1}{2}$ unit) . . . . .	1916-1925

#### THE EXAMINATION QUESTIONS

The examinations of 1901 consisted of two sets of papers, one designed for those whose courses were adjusted to the recommendations of the Committee of Seven, and the other designed for those whose courses were not so adjusted.<sup>16</sup> The examiners presupposed the use of good texts, collateral reading, and practice in written work, as well as a cer-



tain amount of geography and map work.<sup>17</sup> Much biographical and geographical information was required by the examinations in 1901, and has been demanded ever since. Military and economic history were included in 1901 while social history was practically omitted. In general, it may be said that the questions in 1901 called for mere enumeration. One of the questions, for example, was as follows: "Name five grievances against George III stated in the Declaration of Independence."<sup>18</sup>

The examinations in 1902 showed some liberalization, literature and social history being included while economic history received more emphasis. Although an improvement was noticeable in all the examinations, that in American history showed the least change. It was not until 1911, for instance, that a question indisputably to be classed as social

history was included in an American history paper.<sup>19</sup>

The early history examinations offered considerable opportunity to choose questions; the American history examination of 1901, for example, containing twenty-eight questions of which the candidate was required to answer only nine, properly distributed. Since 1901 the amount of choice has been steadily reduced, and of late years eleven questions have been set in the American history examinations, six being required of the candidates.

During the last twenty years there has been some degree of improvement in the type of questions included in the examinations, but certainly there has been no radical change. Following are three questions illustrative of recent examinations in American history:

"What are the powers of the Federal Government with regard to taxation?" (1929)

"Give the main provisions of the Compromise of 1850. What was the attitude of Clay, Webster, and Calhoun toward this measure?" (1930)

"Name three tariff laws enacted before 1889. Explain the nature of two of these and tell what conditions led to their enactment." (1932)

#### ANALYSIS OF THE AMERICAN HISTORY EXAMINATIONS

An analysis of the examinations in American history with Civil Government, given each June since 1901, reveals that well over three hundred different topics have been included in these papers out of a grand total of four hundred and forty-seven questions.<sup>20</sup> These figures lend weight to the theory, advanced by Henry Johnson, that the chief criterion of excellence which the examiners apply to an item is whether or not it has been included before. It does seem as though there should have been more agreement on a smaller number of genuinely important topics.

The data from which a large part of this study was written appear in Table V, which follows. In this table are listed the topics called for in the College Board's examinations in American History with Civil Government, which have been given each June since 1901. The topics are grouped alphabetically under the following general headings:

(1) BIOGRAPHY. A complete list of all biographies that have been called for.

(2) CIVIL GOVERNMENT.

(3) COLONIES. Questions pertaining to colonial affairs that do not fall under some narrower classification, such as COMMERCE, are included.

(4) COMMERCE. Commercial and industrial topics.

TABLE IV  
NUMBER OF QUESTIONS INCLUDED IN THE AMERICAN HISTORY EXAMINATIONS, AND NUMBER REQUIRED OF THE CANDIDATES, 1901-1932, INCLUSIVE

Date	Number of questions on the exam.	Number of questions to be answered by the candidates
June		
1901	28	9
02	19	10
03	24	10
04	22	10
05	18	10
06	14	7
07	13	8
08	13	8
09	13	8
1910	13	8
11	13	8
12	13	8
13	13	7
14	13	7
15	13	6
16	15	7
17	14	8
18	15	7
19	11	6
1920	14	7
21	15	7
22	12	6
23	12	6
24	10	6
25	10	6
26	10	6
27	11	6
28	10	6
29	11	6
1930	11	6
31	11	6
32	13	6

(5) **DISCOVERIES AND EXPLORATIONS.** Topics covering the discovery and exploration of the North American continent.

(6) **DOMESTIC AFFAIRS BY ADMINISTRATIONS.** Only one question is included under this heading.

(7) **ELECTIONS.** Questions concerning the various national elections are included.

(8) **EXPLAIN QUOTATIONS.** In one of the early examinations, this question, of a type now almost extinct, occurred.

(9) **FOREIGN AFFAIRS.**

(10) **GEOGRAPHY.** No attempt has been made to list the names of all the places asked for in the map questions. Instead, these are grouped under such topics as "locate miscellaneous places on the map," or "locate seceding states."

(11) **INDIANS.** One question concerning the Indian problem in Georgia is included here.

(12) **INVENTIONS.** This topic could have been included under **SOCIAL HISTORY.**

(13) **LIST THE CHAPTERS WHICH YOU WOULD SELECT FOR AN AMERICAN HISTORY TEXTBOOK.** This type of question occurred only once.

(14) **POLITICAL PARTIES.**

(15) **RECONSTRUCTION.** (After Civil War.)

(16) **RELIGION.** This topic, also, could have been included under **SOCIAL HISTORY.**

(17) **SLAVERY.**

(18) **SOCIAL HISTORY.** Topics dealing with the life of the common man are included here.

(19) **TARIFF.**

(20) **TAXATION.**

(21) **WARS.**

(22) Topics commonly included for "identification." This list is far from complete. It includes only those topics which recur often.

For purposes of classification it has been necessary arbitrarily to assign topics to the various general headings. It is clear that many topics could have been appropriately placed under more than one general heading, and in fact, some of the "double-barreled" questions had to be split in order to be classified. With all its faults, however, this table may prove particularly interesting to teachers of college preparatory classes in American History.

Table VI, which follows, shows in four columns the relative importance, as indicated by the frequency of occurrence, of the general headings under which the various topics were classified in Table III.

Column A is based on all examinations in American history with Civil Government, given each June since 1901. Column B includes the examinations from 1901 to 1910, inclusive; Column C includes those given from 1911 to 1920, inclusive; and

Column D includes those from 1921 to 1931, inclusive.

TABLE V

NUMBER OF TIMES TOPIC WAS CALLED FOR; 1901-1932	
(1) Biography	72
(2) Civil Government	98
(3) Colonies	36
(4) Commerce	23
(5) Discoveries and Explorations	19
(6) Domestic Affairs by Administrations	2
(7) Elections	14
(8) Explain quotations	1
(9) Foreign Affairs	48
(10) Geography	96
(11) Indians	1
(12) Inventions	7
(13) List chapters you would select for an American history textbook	1
(14) Political Parties	18
(15) Reconstruction	9
(16) Religion	7
(17) Slavery	34
(18) Social History	19
(19) Tariff	6
(20) Taxation	3
(21) Wars	60
(22) Topics commonly presented for "identification," some examples:	
assumption	
Burr's conspiracy	
copperheads	
Dartmouth College	
electoral college	
eleventh amendment	
Federalist	
free silver	
Hartford Convention	
internal improvements	

Arrangement of the data in this form provides an interesting comparison of the emphasis during each decade. "Government" and "Geography" are obviously of great importance in the examinations. The fact that "Geography" dropped to third place in Column D is probably due to the method of classification more than to less actual emphasis in the examination. The rise of "Social History" in rank order reflects the change in the direction of historical research.

A study of Table IV supports the assertion that, although there has been some alteration in the emphasis of the examinations in American history, there has been no radical change.

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TABLE VI  
RELATIVE IMPORTANCE OF GENERAL HEADINGS IN AMERICAN HISTORY EXAMINATIONS, 1901-1931, AS SHOWN BY  
FREQUENCY OF OCCURRENCE IN TABLE V

		Column A	Column B	Column C	Column D
		1901-1932	1901-1910	1911-1920	1921-1931
Rank Order or Frequency of Occurrence	1	Government	Geography	Geography	Government
	2	Geography	Government	Government	Biography
	3	Biography	Wars	Biography	Geography
	4	Wars	Biography	Foreign Affairs	Foreign Affairs
	5	Foreign Affairs	Political Parties	Wars	Wars
	6	Colonies	Colonies	Colonies	Social History
	7	Slavery	Slavery	Social History	Commerce
	8	Commerce	Foreign Affairs	Slavery	Slavery
	9	Discoveries and Explorations	Commerce	Commerce	Colonies
	10	Political Parties	Discoveries and Explorations	Political Parties	Elections
	11	Elections	Religion	Discoveries and Explorations	Discoveries and Explorations
	12	Reconstruction	Elections	Elections	Taxation
	13	Religion	Reconstruction	Commerce	Inventions
	14	Inventions	Inventions	Reconstruction	Reconstruction
	15	Tariff	Tariff	Inventions	Tariff
	16	Taxation		Tariff	

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<sup>1</sup> This study was suggested by Dr. Howard E. Wilson and carried on with his guidance.

<sup>2</sup> For early entrance requirements see: Chase, W. J. and Thurber, C. H. "Tabular Statement of Entrance Requirements to Representative Colleges and Universities of the United States," *School Review*, Vol. IV (June, 1896), 341-412.

<sup>3</sup> Broome, E. C., *Historical and Critical Discussion of College Entrance Requirements* (New York, 1902), 128.

<sup>4</sup> Held at Denver, Colorado, 1895.

<sup>5</sup> Broome, *op. cit.*, 133.

<sup>6</sup> Macmillan Co., New York, 1899.

<sup>7</sup> College Entrance Examination Board, *Document* No. 2 (Feb. 1, 1901), 10.

<sup>8</sup> Cf. *The Study of History in Secondary Schools* (Macmillan: New York, 1911), 4-5.

<sup>9</sup> College Entrance Examination Board, *Document* No. 93 (July, 1919), 9-17.

<sup>10</sup> Fiske, T. S., ed., *Work of the College Entrance Examination Board, 1901-1925* (Ginn: Boston, 1926), 167.

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<sup>16</sup> College Entrance Examination Board, *Document No. 2* (Feb. 1, 1901), 10; note.

<sup>17</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 10.

<sup>18</sup> Included in the American History Examination of 1901.

<sup>19</sup> It was: "Describe the life of a Virginia planter in the eighteenth century."

<sup>20</sup> Cf. Table IV.

## The Permanence of Learning in World History

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For the past two years at the University of Missouri we have administered World History tests to members of our introductory history course. The scores on these tests give a measurement of the permanence of learning that has a significant bearing upon the high school course.

There have been studies of the permanence of learning in high school history that have indicated that the proportion of retention is very low. Van Wagenen tested 800 freshmen at the University of Minnesota in the fields of American history and geography, and compared the results with the standard scores for grade pupils on the same test.<sup>1</sup> The results were disappointing, more so in geography than in history. Van Wagenen's conclusion was that "as compared with elementary school pupils, college freshmen have a relatively narrow range of information in both American history and geography. Only the most gifted among the college freshmen surpass average eighth grade pupils in either subject." This means, of course, that as most of the eight hundred freshmen had taken senior high school American history only one or two years before, they had forgotten all that the course had added to the knowledge secured in elementary school, in addition to that which had been gained by incidental learning of American government and Modern history from their extra-school environment. Similar evidence is given for World history by the two standards set for the "American Council European History Test" where the median grade for new college students is approximately forty-five per cent less than that for high school pupils.

Forgetting is a process that follows all learning, and is not particularly characteristic of the social studies, at least since the concept of the teaching of history as a means of developing the faculty of the memory went into discard. The few comparative studies of forgetting of different kinds of subjects matter that we have, and they are far from

satisfactory, do not indicate that the social studies are subject to it to a greater degree than other high school courses.<sup>2</sup> In fact, this far from conclusive evidence seems to indicate a higher degree of remembering than in many other fields. Bassett's careful study of retention in history among pupils in grades from six to eight shows that after an interval of sixteen months, when the curve of forgetting has appreciably flattened out, pupils still retain seventy-two per cent of what they knew at the close of the semester during which they were taught.<sup>3</sup> No doubt incidental learning during the sixteen months helped to keep this percentage high, which is some confirmatory evidence of the validity of the concepts that the tests measured.

The obvious fact, however, that pupils forget much that they learned in history courses, has led teachers and historians in many cases to fall back for a justification of their work upon sweeping generalizations regarding points of view, personal philosophy, and experience in reliving the past. Whatever values these have that can be separated from retention, it is unlikely that they alone justify the prominent place the social studies occupy in the high school curriculum. In fact, there are probably few values in this field of learning that are not tied up with ability to immediately recall; for ease of relearning would seem to be of less value than in some other kinds of subject matter. Carl Becker has recently written about the high school pupil: "... no historical knowledge will be of much use to him except in so far as he can make it a permanent part of the social memory pattern which enables him to function effectively in whatever activities he may engage."<sup>4</sup>

If this is true, history as a subject of study in high school can only be defended if there is a substantial retention of the concepts taught, irrespective of the value of those concepts. If Van Wagenen's study and others of a similar nature are sound evidence of what our high schools are

doing with their history courses, there is probably slight justification for their prominence in the curriculum. It is to this problem that our testing of college freshmen applies.

In selecting a measure of retention of World history by students in our freshman course, we tried to avoid especially those types of objective tests which are weighted most heavily on the type of information that, as Krey and Wesley have recently shown, can be taught to normal pupils in a cramming session of a few weeks.<sup>5</sup> At the same time we wanted a test that would measure fairly and proportionately the concepts and ideas that are customarily included in the approved World history courses. We selected the "Iowa Academic Meet" test in World history for 1931, which is similar to the 1929 and 1930 editions which have been analyzed in detail by their authors, Howard R. Anderson and E. F. Linquist.<sup>6</sup> In spite of certain imperfections in these tests that their authors have already pointed out, the 1931 form meets satisfactorily several critical standards to which we subjected it. Furthermore, it was standardized as to its grade norms on over eight thousand Iowa high school pupils, as the measure of their achievement at the end of a one year course in World history. We assumed that their norms measured the achievement of our freshmen with like training, from two to three years previous when they completed their high school World history. This test was given the past two years to freshmen, and in a few cases to sophomores who had taken no college courses in the social studies' field. In all, some 417 students were tested.

On the surface, the results are far different from those secured by a Van Wagenen. Considering our complete group, the mean equals 44.17, or .91 below the standard on the test established as the mean for high school classes, and shows, at least, that incidental learning has been sufficient to compensate for such forgetting as occurred.

In order to refine our measurement, however, we studied the transcripts of each student's credits to find out what high school World history he had taken and, when possible, the grade received in such courses. Like the high school pupils whose norms were used as a measure, the majority of our freshmen had taken the one year course in World history. This group, numbering 252, made a mean score in the test of 42.69, 2.39 points below the high school standard set. Of those who had taken a two-year course, of whom there were 120, the mean exceeded by 3.72 points the norm set by high school pupils of one year's training.

In trying to estimate the validity of high school grades in World history as a measure of retention of learning, the results were interesting, if not sur-

prising. In spite of numerous special cases which seemed to prove the lack of reliability of such grades, the group of 178 whose grades were on their transcripts showed a positive correlation with the amount of history retained since the course had been taken. Taking the students with a background of a one-year World history course, and correlating their test score with the grades received in that course, resulted in a correlation of  $.340 \pm .054$ . With those that had the two year course, the same calculation resulted in the figure  $.424 \pm .050$ . These certainly indicate that not only is the retention of high school World history high, but that the evidence of mastery accepted by high school teachers for grades is still some evidence of relative retention two to three years after the course was completed.

In order to make sure that this evidence of achievement was not chiefly the result of either a select group of students, sifted out by university requirements, or a fortuitous selection of special mental abilities, we made a study of a smaller number for whom we had scores on the Thurston "Psychological Test for High School Graduates and College Freshmen" taken, in most cases, within two weeks of the history test. Preliminary evidence that our own group was reasonably normal was given by the grades in World history mentioned before which with the exception of the F group made a distribution not very different from the normal high school grade distribution.

The mean on this psychological test was almost exactly the same as the standard for high school graduates, which indicates that our group was in no substantial way superior to high school graduates generally, although they may have been slightly superior to high school pupils in World history classes. Correlations between scores on the psychological tests and the history test were computed for three groups: those who had taken no World history; those who had one year's credit; and those who had two years' credit. For the first the coefficient of correlation was  $.654 \pm .0657$ ; for the second  $.569 \pm .031$ ; for the third  $.525 \pm .050$ . These are all high, but it is probably significant that the more history the pupil has studied, the more qualities other than those measured by a psychological test enter in to decrease this close correlation.

All this is favorable evidence of competent high school teaching. But it is not the entire story. Two conditions tend to discredit such a conclusion. One is the remarkably high achievement of those with no World history in high school. The other is the exceedingly small difference in retention between those with a background of the one-year course and those with the advantage of a two-year course.

Among the 417 students tested there were forty-five whose transcripts showed no credit in World or European history in any form in high school. The mean of their scores was surprisingly high, 40.32, only 3.14 points below the mean for freshmen who had taken the one-year course and 4.76 points below that established by high school pupils. In order to find the reasons for this rather remarkable achievement of the group with no history, we centered our attention upon that part of the group on whom we had scores on the psychological test. This reduced the number to 32 who had a group mean equal to a 60 per cent ranking and hence substantially higher than that of the two other groups. Making calculations on a regression formula in order to equate the three groups on the basis of their scores in the psychological test, the differences of the means are only 5.57 between those with no history and those with one year, and 4.82 between the latter and those with two years. These then show a steady increment in achievement among the three groups, according to the amount of history taken in high school, and although this increment is reliable when subjected to statistical tests, except possibly for the small number of cases in the no history group, these differences in achievement are themselves remarkably small.

If we only can be sure of a difference in the mean achievement of these three groups of about five points on a test with a total possible score of 130, it would seem to be an open question as to whether the results of World history course have justified themselves.<sup>7</sup> If incidental learning about World history comes to those pupils who do not take a course in such quantities as to enable them to attain a mean score equal to ninety per cent of that attained by pupils having the one-year course, and nearly eighty per cent of that attained by those taking the two-year course, it cannot be maintained that the courses have influenced those who took them in any adequate degree. To check these conclusions we gave a different test, "The American Council European History Test," form B, to 114 freshmen this year who had not taken the Iowa test. The results were parallel, except that the difference in achievement between the two groups who had taken World history was smaller, and the number in the group who had taken no World history was too small to permit generalizations.

All of this seems to justify the conclusion that college freshmen have the ability to score an achievement test in World history almost equally as well as they did at the time they completed their course in high school. The maintenance of this ability is due in some degree to incidental learning which would have given them a large share of this ability had they not taken the history course; that

between the one year and the two year courses there is a statistically valid superiority for the two-year course, but that superiority is so meager as to bring into serious question its relative value.

Without attempting to apply these interpretations in any complete fashion, a few observations seem to be in place.

First, the recent survey of the World history course by A. D. Gray seems to show the basis of much of our difficulty.<sup>8</sup> The usual course, text, and methodology, he found differ little from that much abused general history of many years ago. That is, teachers are still attempting to make the course a source of information about a wide range of the details of political history that have little logical or psychological relationship. The philosophy of the World history course as expressed in reports of committees, in the writings and addresses of its advocates, and in the polite acquiescence of all others, has had little influence as yet except in changing the terminology used. What goes on in the class-room day by day and in the pupil's mind varies little from the history courses of several years ago.

Second, there is almost no planned program whatever in the high school for the maintenance of ideas and concepts taught in World history. Unlike American history, it is really only taught once—in the tenth grade. The European Backgrounds course frequently offered in the sixth or seventh grade, is usually hardly more than a remote ancestor of World history. With this step in the two-cycle plan so weak, it would seem to be highly advisable to provide for some use of the ideas and concepts taught in World history the two following years.

Lastly we need more research and discussion of the problems involved in teaching World history. The emphasis here has been so strong upon American history that the teacher of World history has little aid relatively, in such matters as planning reading programs, in selecting concepts to teach for permanent retention, and in supplying teaching devices to make vivid difficult concepts. We need vastly more attention here before we can expect substantially better results from our World history teaching.<sup>9</sup>

<sup>7</sup> M. J. Van Wagenen, "The College Freshman's Range of Information in the Social Sciences." *School Review*, XXXV (Jan., 1927), 32-44.

<sup>8</sup> D. H. Eckenberry, "Permanence of High School Learning," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XIV (Nov., 1923), 463-477.

<sup>9</sup> Sarah Janet Basset, *Retention of History in the Sixth, Seventh, and Eighth Grades with Special Reference to the Factors that Influence Retention*. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press, 1928, p. 51.

<sup>4</sup> "Capitalization of History in the School." *Education*, LIII (Dec., 1932), 300.



<sup>5</sup> A. C. Krey and Edgar B. Wesley, "Does the New-Type Test Measure Results of Instruction in the Social Studies," *Historical Outlook*, XXIII (Jan., 1932), 7-11.

<sup>6</sup> E. F. Lindquist and H. R. Anderson, "Objective Testing in World History," *Historical Outlook*, XXI (March, 1930), 115-122.

Howard R. Anderson and Everett F. Lindquist, "The Improvement of Objective Testing in History," *Second Yearbook*, National Council for the Social Studies, Philadelphia: McKinley Publishing Company, 1932, 97-117.

<sup>7</sup> The test has fifty items of a five response type which

give a chance score of ten; sixty matching items with unbalanced, twelve to ten, columns; and twenty historical locations on an outline map. The element of chance in the last two is insignificant.

<sup>8</sup> "The One-year Course in World History," *Historical Outlook*, XXIII (Dec., 1932), 407-409.

<sup>9</sup> Acknowledgment should be made to Melida Cook and Chester G. Forney, graduate students at the University of Missouri, for assistance in compiling the figures used in this article.

## The Survey Course: A Problem in Integration

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The liberal tradition in American education has for long been set against a too early specialization on the part of the student and has insisted that at least in the first years of his college career he should attempt to broaden his mind by studying a wide variety of subjects. It has assumed that he will become a wiser man and a better citizen if, before turning to some specialized activity, he gains at least some slight concept of the vastness of the field of human knowledge and of the long history of its development. It has shown a grave, and at times perhaps exaggerated distrust of that theory of education which holds that students, starting with their attention narrowly focussed on a limited subject, will gradually be led outward by and from it to wider spheres, thus gaining a more or less integrated view of the seamless web of knowledge that shall be at the same time a personal philosophy. Yet, if exaggerated, this distrust has not been entirely unjustified, despite the biting criticisms of the products of the latter system. For it is all too true that a very large proportion of the young students who enter American colleges, with their eyes fixed on some specialized calling or profession as the end in view, feel that their immediate task is to gather useful facts and do not realize that a well-developed *Weltanschauung* may have a real value in later life, not only for the uses of leisure, but also as an approach to, and aid in, their particular field of endeavor. In view of the realistic basis of the American philosophy of life on the one hand and of the uninspired teaching in too many American schools on the other, stressing as it does the accumulation of materials rather than the development of ideas and the disciplining of minds, this is not surprising. Yet it does lead to reasonable doubts as to whether a course of study based on specialization would widen the mental horizon of

youth or would confirm and intensify its potential narrowness.

Nevertheless during the last few years it has been increasingly recognized that the American method hitherto pursued possessed grave defects of its own. A brief study of a series of discrete subjects failed to give any unity of viewpoint or to develop in the student the requisite philosophical outlook. He collected a series of facts on various topics, stored them in separate and watertight compartments, failed to apply them beyond the limits of courses, and forgot them as soon as possible after examinations. Lacking even the narrowed enthusiasm of the practical specialist, he probably got even less than he would have done by the alternative system of education. The problem, therefore, arose as to how the existing system might, under conditions of growing enrollment and democratic education which precluded the possibility of devoting attention to a few promising minds with a cheerful neglect of the eager multitude, give something of that general understanding of man's life which was acknowledged to be the aim of the diffuse compulsory curriculum.

In the social sciences, growing in popularity as an aftermath of the World War, the problem was peculiarly pressing. Unlike the pure sciences, they had no methods generally accepted by teachers, while the formalized presentations which resulted from such techniques as had become firmly established were seen to be increasingly irrelevant to the world to which they were supposed to apply. The different branches in the field were unduly isolated at a time when alert thinkers were aware of the need for their integration, or at least perceived their necessary interconnections. Indeed, some saw the need for a unifying of knowledge and were unprepared to accept even the conventional distinction between pure and social science, a not unreasonable

attitude in a world where the methods, the philosophy and the applications of science all affected the lives of men as social animals. Educational requirements and social philosophy thus possessed a common object, and those concerned with each shared a common attitude. It was as a result of this that survey courses in the social sciences emerged, their object being at once to break down barriers in thought, which had entered into college departments and courses, and to give students a sense of the necessary relations of things which would aid their approach to particular subjects, separated by reason of the complexity and copiousness of material rather than by any actual divisions or barriers inherent therein.

This determination, however, gave rise to new problems in its attempt to solve the old. Or, to put it more accurately, the new intention did not break down automatically the traditional barriers. The chief problem was how to create the desired unity or harmony of treatment so that from a review of Western Civilization and of its institutions there might be achieved a sense of the evolution of our society as a coherent whole and of the integration of the institutions which composed it. This difficulty was increased by the fact that there were few, if any, works written from such a point of view.

Readings had to be selected from a variety of authors who had written on particular subjects. Such works were often the output of specialists so that it was difficult to find a combination of simplicity and accuracy necessary in such a project, while it was equally difficult to gain any sense of a unified whole by combining readings from many such writers in different fields. This difficulty corresponded somewhat to the difficulties of collecting a suitable staff to teach such courses. To present to immature minds a series of specialists was likely to result in nothing but confusion and despair, while those of a sufficient breadth of training and outlook to teach the whole course, and to give unity by their personalities to readings written from a variety of viewpoints, were sufficiently rare. The inevitable conclusion seemed to be that after some years of teaching experience a group of persons should get together and write such a book for their specific purpose.

The first complete attempt to carry out this task and to present the results as a single book<sup>1</sup> has made its appearance in *An Introduction to Western Civilization* by Professor Hedger and his associates at the University of Cincinnati. These gentlemen claim that they have successfully accomplished this task, gaining both unity of treatment and the advantages of specialized knowledge. The reading of the book does not bear out this statement, and one has regretfully to conclude that their

work is at best an experiment noble in motive.

For they have fallen between two schools, between the historical and the functional approach. This covers perhaps the chief problem of method in presenting such a course. It is possible to confine oneself to a purely descriptive treatment of the evolution of the development of civilization after the manner of H. G. Wells' *Outline of History*, but without the stimulus of ideas that flows from his personality. It is, on the other hand, equally possible to consider society as a series of institutions, to trace the growth of each of those institutions separately and to state their importance today. The former method, unless the writer or writers have a definite and somewhat pungent philosophy of history, ends in a description of different stages of society which, while perhaps interesting and entertaining, are not unusually illuminating as explanations of why our civilization is as it is. The latter approach may give one some fair understanding of institutions *per se* but may also leave one without any sense either of their past life in an integrated state of society or of their relevance to the contemporary scene in its totality. The method, in short, runs the grave danger of simply duplicating the formalized and conventional treatment of specific subjects considered alone. That was the chief defect of the whole system against which the new idea was a protest. Whether there is any particular value in decreasing the amount of study of this kind devoted to each subject and juxtaposing a whole series of such subjects in one course is highly dubious.

The authors of the work under review seem to have combined the defects of both methods, without gaining the positive value that can on rare occasions be given to either by men of highly exceptional ability. They start off with a large section that endeavors to trace the development of civilization from the primeval slime down to the period of modern culture; including in this section, however, the statement of the functional relationship of man to his culture in general, and of the biological, geographic and social factors that play their part in the formation of such relationships. Initially it may be asked whether this attempt to show the relation of man in his culture as a tool for studying the histories of a great variety of cultures is either useful or accurate. It seems dubiously useful because the statements made on these matters have to be so general as to lose a great deal of any meaning they might otherwise have; while their generality also makes it difficult for the student to apply them to specific cultures, particularly when the history of those cultures is not in itself set forth in terms of cultural integration. It perhaps seems irrelevant too, because the ideas on which such a description

of culture rests are the ideas developed by modern sciences since the time of Darwin. The theories on which that science is based certainly were not held, for example, in the Ancient Greek world; and one may question whether it is useful to approach that world with those ideas if it is one's intention to understand it in its own terms, and as it functions. Moreover by this process, unless one is prepared for a great deal of repetition, one loses the very real enlightenment that will come from showing the importance of the evolutionary ideal in changing the world of the eighteenth into the world of the twentieth century.

As to the history itself, one may say first that, while it is doubtless necessary for the student to realize the vast age of man and of his planet, this also is more aptly presented by showing the change in viewpoints and in way of life that separates modern man from his fellows in mediaeval times. Certainly a careful statement of the problematical geological periods and of the evolution of different anthropological types is neither essential nor greatly informative in giving a man a concept of the type of civilization in which he lives today, or of the factors which produced it; while as presented in this work the classification of races contains, even though it may not be intentional, certain implications which are highly dangerous.

A not entirely dissimilar criticism may be made of the review of actual human cultures. That is to say, one may doubt how far cultures of pre-historic man, even if we can make any definite statements about them, as well as the later cultures of the Near East of which we have considerable knowledge, offer, at least when studied in a superficial way, any lessons to modern men or show any influence on their lives. More generally the whole attempt to survey the ancient cultures as well as those of Europe from the beginning of the Middle Ages serves little purpose unless it is carried out in a manner more thorough than the scope of this work allows.

The task is not made easier or the results more successful by the conflict of intention that seems clearly to have occupied the minds of the authors. Many historians believe, though their opinion may be questioned, that it is both possible and necessary to study a civilization in its own terms, to see it as a totality in and of itself, emphasizing not only the obvious differences from our civilization that it displays but also the fact that the seeming similarities are more generally verbal than real. To get such a view of any civilization in these terms is impossible in the space of twenty pages.

An alternative method is to recognize that all history is contemporary history and in terms of this recognition frankly and avowedly to endeavor to

trace the influence of a past civilization on our present society, ignoring entirely those elements in it which have not survived, and simply trying to see what lessons we may learn from that epoch of history that are relevant to the problems of our age, and what effect its institutions have had in forming our own through their development and transformation. Here, too, the danger of confusing verbal and real similarities has carefully to be avoided.

The authors have tried to do both. Their descriptions of the institutions of past civilization which have not survived are, however, so slight as to be meaningless to any present-day student who has not already a very considerable knowledge of the past with which they deal; while the combination of a variety of such descriptions gives a picture that is either flat and empty or hopelessly misleading. In the attempt, on the other hand, to show the influence of past on present they are guilty not infrequently of the error of reading the past into the present, as well as of seeing at work in American civilization influences from the far past, which are of trivial and minor importance, if they have any reality whatsoever. Indeed, the desire to show that all cultures, from ancient Greece on, have had, not simply a general effect in shaping our civilization through the gradual developments of western civilization as a whole, but rather a more particular and direct effect, seems to have been an objective as permanent as it was misguided. One ends the survey of this section with no clear concept of any past culture and without any real sense of the continuity of social development.

The second and greater part of the work is taken up with the final analysis of certain main institutions of our modern life, divided into economic, political, domestic, educational, and religious. An attempt is made to connect up the two parts by a general discussion of the nature of institutions, in which the sameness of an institution at all stages of its life is stressed. This of course assumes a unity in history, but it does it at the expense of neglecting the essential change that is an inevitable part of human life, as well as the dynamic character of society. Each institution is then dealt with in its own terms, isolating it from other institutions and stressing the peculiarities that mark it from them rather than the interrelation of institutions and the diversity of functions that each performs. These are indeed mentioned, but they are subordinated to the one or two particular functions that are considered characteristic and eternal within the institution. Thus, for example, while it is admitted that the family performs economic functions and is subject to economic pressures characteristic of the particular historical period in which it exists, the main attempt is to suggest the peculiar essence



which separates it from other institutions and to discover what may be said of the family that is true alike of its manifestations among the Melanesians and among the dwellers in Megalopolis.

What is given, then, is a history of the internal development of each institution and a statement of its present position considered in terms of its own life. The tie-up of the history of an institution at any one point with the previously given history of that same period is slight; while the treatment of the institution as a contemporary phenomenon leaves one totally unaware of it as an integral part of our present-day society, influenced by and influencing it in an imperfect but dynamic harmony. The procedure is given a justification on the ground that scholars have in fact isolated different institutions for purposes of intensive research, and that therefore this method is the correct one. The isolation, however, was in the case of scholars necessary, and was brought about by the need for more accurate information and the impossibility of getting this while endeavoring at the same time to study the whole of life. The avowed object of these scholars was to see these institutions more accurately, not simply for their own sake, but so that with the aid of such greater accuracy a fuller, a more realistic, picture of the totality of our society might be constructed. It was the fact that all too frequently in the past decades the later object had been forgotten with the result that one had piles of unintegrated knowledge that led to such undertakings as social science survey courses. The defect of this work in this respect is that it leaves us with a series of isolated compartments living lives of their own in a vacuum.

In concluding this section one may question whether it is in any way fruitful to make a dichotomy between history and function. It would seem to involve an unnecessary use of space without adding anything to the value of the results. Indeed, in the present instance it seems almost to have deprived the results of any value whatsoever. Positively, one may conclude that, if the historical and functional methods are both valuable, they are valuable only when integrated as a whole so that history and institutions are seen to have been one, and not two. In this way one may get within some reasonable space a treatment of western civilization that does not lack depth and that is capable of giving enlightenment by stressing the correlation of institutional function and social development. One may of course question whether it is in fact possible to cover even the minimum period necessary to give such a coherent presentation of the structure and background of present-day western society that shall possess real meaning within any one volume; but if it is possible, it can be achieved, in the opinion of the reviewer,

only by a method radically different from that of the authors of this work.

A few other questions of not quite minor importance are likewise brought into prominence by the efforts of the Cincinnati associates. Perhaps the least important of them is that of the intelligence to be assumed in the reader, assuming the reader to be a youthful undergraduate student just entering college. Certainly on the one hand he may not be expected to understand from a very brief statement the nature of Athenian tribal organization before Cleisthenes; but on the other, even admitting the poverty of school training and of intellectual interests on the part of the mass of American youth, it seems a little absurd to waste time and space stressing the obvious. Thus it is somewhat childish, when insisting that men and women have in different civilizations performed the work usually associated in our present-day life exclusively with one sex, to state "This does not refer of course to the physiological functions of child bearing and feeding." It may surely be assumed that, whatever his other defects, the normal adolescent will at least be sufficiently aware of the facts of life to know this.

Another problem is perhaps more important. It involves the question of how far one should pass moral judgments on the past, particularly when those judgments are used either to condemn or to exalt the present indirectly. The passing of such judgments in terms of current ethical attitudes is, to begin with, painfully unscientific; while its incidental effects on youthful attitudes may be highly dangerous, as indeed certain of the authors clearly recognize. Not entirely divorced from this problem is the question of how far such a work should deliberately indulge in propaganda. In recent times there has been a tendency to justify such propaganda when it is directed against the horrors of war. But even here, if we accept the basic assumption of the whole educational program that human beings are capable of more or less rational judgments in terms of clearly presented facts, a presentation of what is involved in war and what have been the consequences of war in the past should be adequate. Certainly the extension of this propaganda idea in other fields is a very dubious adventure. One of the main criticisms to be made of a large part of this work is that with varying degrees of subtlety the authors do in fact advance and defend certain prejudices and current social attitudes. In general these may be said to be the attitudes of a decided if moderate conservatism. This may be seen in the insistence on the necessity of continuity which is used again and again as a justification of the need for capitalism in some form as an American way of life. Closely connected with

this is the defense of the formal and all-inclusive sovereign state which leads to a very cavalier treatment of such divergent theories as those put forward by the pluralist movement. The need for a continuation of the family and the condemnation of the Soviet régime from this point of view is another example of the same tendency; while the section on religion, somewhat different in tone from the rest of the book, is peculiarly open to condemnation for its insistence, not only on the impossibility of the disappearance of religious attitudes, but also for its defense of Christianity as an infinitely superior way of life to that presented by any alternative religion. This is not to imply that such judgments are unsound or necessarily false, but rather to insist that contrary judgments are possible; and to question the desirability of introducing judgments on either side into an analysis that is supposed to deal simply with the structure and working of institutions. Should it be impossible to avoid value judgments, it is at least necessary then to present the opposed arguments with equal vigor and not to make one's decision in the guise of a statement of ascertained truth.

At the end of the book there is added on a short section on ethical standards. The assumption seems to be that the work hitherto has been purely scientific and that it is necessary finally to give the student some knowledge of the methods of forming clear and well-thought-out judgments in the sphere of moral values. The section does, however, do two other things. The author quite rightly insists that ethical standards are necessarily relative and must emerge from the general context of society, pointing out that judgments on particular questions made in terms of an absolute *a priori* ethic, regardless of particular conditions, are valueless. Secondly a short analysis of certain leading problems of our contemporary society, which require intelligent

judgment of a moral kind on the part of citizens if they are to be solved, is given. This chapter is somewhat scrappy and unconnected even though its intention is admirable. One feels that an expansion of this part of the work would have been highly valuable and would at least have provided it with a worthwhile conclusion.

One's final reactions are two-fold. On the one hand one wonders whether a treatment of this kind may not reinforce in the mind of opponents of this method of education, which is subject particularly to accusations of superficiality, the feeling that their objections are fully justified. Although such a reaction to this particular work may be justified it should in fairness be said that at the end of each chapter the authors do give a fairly competent bibliography of further reading. What was made of a course founded on this book would largely depend on how great a use was made of these readings by the student and on how far the teacher was capable of expanding the treatment given in the text. Even so, one may question whether such a slight treatment justifies a vast volume since, if much outside reading is to be done, a general outline and plan of the course would be equally effective and would be less likely to suffer from the positive defects that have crept into this work. On the other hand one is led to realize how vast is the problem of making a synthesis of philosophic and analytical sociology and of presenting it in a well digested form for the benefits of students. Yet one becomes aware, partly through the defects of this particular presentation, of how vital it is that the task should be accomplished. For without it scholarship and education are likely to be meaningless and to become increasingly futile.

<sup>1</sup>"An Introduction to Western Civilization," edited by George A. Hedger, University of Cincinnati. Doubleday Doran Co. Inc., New York, xi, 854 pp., 1933. \$3.50.

"Ireland After Twelve Years" is the subject of a thought-provoking article in the January *Fortnightly* by Hugh A. Law. "The persistence of the same issues, relatively trivial, but of vast consequence in the battle for domestic order and international friendship is due" he says, "to Mr. de Valera's incorrigible propensity for tackling a job at the wrong end. If instead of seizing the Land Annuities on the way from the landholder to the bondholder, he had invited the British Government to confer with representatives of the Free State in order to see how the burden might be lightened, it would surely have been difficult for Whitehall to refuse seeing that at the same moment it was itself engaged in offering similar considerations to the attention of Washington."

Most timely and suggestive is John Gunther's "Dollfuss and the Future Austria" which appears in the *Foreign Affairs* for January. He came into power in March, 1933, but he seemed to be fighting a losing battle until he had promise of the support of Mussolini, in the following summer, Il Duce does not want Austria to go Nazi. This would in effect bring Germany to the Brenner Pass and almost to Trieste. There are 200,000 Germans in the South Tyrol and the further Germany is away from them the better Mussolini likes it. Should Austria go Nazi, then Hungary, Czechoslovakia, Switzerland, and even Denmark may feel the Hitler hammer. Austria was the objective of the first attack, it failed, but it was a lesson. Europe gives thanks to little Dollfuss.

# Recent Happenings in the Social Studies

BY COMMITTEE ON CURRENT INFORMATION OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

HOWARD E. WILSON, Ed.D., *Chairman, Harvard University*

## FOURTH YEARBOOK OF NATIONAL COUNCIL

The *Fourth Yearbook* of the National Council for the Social Studies appeared in February, 1934. As announced earlier, it is devoted to a series of articles on the curriculum—four of the articles are general in nature from the points of view, respectively, of an educational scientist, an educational philosopher, a special-methods expert, and a school administrator; one is a bibliography on the curriculum; the other nine articles describe courses of study in nine specific and representative American school systems, tracing the courses from Grade I through Grade XII and describing the methods by which they were made.

The Table of Contents of the *Yearbook* is as follows:

1. Needed Revisions of the Social Science Curriculum.—Charles H. Judd
2. Bases of Curriculum Construction.—H. Gordon Hullfish
3. Techniques in the Construction of the Social Studies Curriculum.—Edgar B. Wesley
4. The Administrator's Demands on the Social Science Curriculum.—L. A. White
5. The Social Studies Curriculum in Tulsa, Oklahoma.—Nelle E. Bowman
6. The Social Studies Curriculum in Des Moines, Iowa.—J. E. Stonecipher
7. The Social Studies Curriculum in San Antonio, Texas.—C. C. Ball
8. The Social Studies Curriculum in Denver, Colorado.—Mary E. Christie
9. The Social Studies Curriculum in Lincoln School of Teachers College, Columbia University.—Elmina Lucke
10. The Social Studies in the Germantown Friends School.—Joseph Haines Price
11. The Social Studies Curriculum in Pasadena, California.—Margaret E. Bennett
12. The Social Studies Curriculum in the University of Chicago Laboratory Schools.—Howard C. Hill and Robert E. Keohane
13. The Social Studies Curriculum in Reading, Massachusetts.—J. M. Woodbridge, A. Imrie Dixon, and Verna L. Wadleigh
14. Bibliography on the Social Studies Curriculum.—Florence H. Wilson and Marguerite Atwood

Copies of the *Yearbook* have been mailed to all members of the National Council. Copies may be secured by non-members, or additional copies by members, through the McKinley Publishing Company, 1021 Filbert Street, Philadelphia. The cost of the *Yearbook* is \$2.00. The *Yearbook* will be of value to those who are concerned with the progressive adaptation of the social sciences to the necessities of curriculum-making.

## INDIVIDUALIZING TEACHING

Miss Alma G. Hamilton, of South Philadelphia High School for Girls, contributes an article on "Individualization in History Classes" to the *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House* for January, 1934 (VIII, 5, 291-93). She outlines certain steps in curriculum adjustment of history courses for dull-normal groups, and presents illustrative worksheets describing corresponding adjustments in methods of teaching.

## TESTING ATTITUDES

J. Wayne Wrightstone, of Teachers College, Columbia University, contributes an article on "Civic Beliefs and Correlated Intellectual and Social Factors" to the *School Review* for January, 1934 (XLII, 1, 53-58). The author constructed a test which "purports to measure civic attitudes and beliefs in the fields of (1) race attitudes toward Negroes, Indians, Chinese, Japanese, and others; (2) international attitudes toward the League of Nations, immigration, tariff, Philippine Islands, and the like; (3) national political attitudes toward the Constitution, political parties, laws, and the like; and (4) national achievements and ideals in morals, economics, education, and the arts and sciences. The total score of the test presents a composite index of the person's tendency to favor liberal positions on controversial issues. The test was given to 412 pupils in Grades IX-XII, and scores were correlated "with (1) verbal intelligence, (2) achievement for historical knowledges, (3) number of courses in social studies completed in secondary school, (4) number of magazines and newspapers usually read, (5) socio-economic status, (6) nationality of parents and (7) emotional stability."

The author draws the following conclusions from his study: "(1) Intelligence quotient shows a negligible correlation with the scores. . . (2) Historical knowledge shows a marked positive correlation with liberal attitudes on civic problems. (3) The number of courses in social studies completed by a pupil in the secondary school is, in itself, no guaranty of changed liberal or conservative attitudes. (4) Volume of reading in current magazines and newspapers has a positive correlation with liberal civic beliefs. (5) Socio-economic status and nationality of parents show slight positive correlations with liberal civic beliefs. (6) A measure of emotional stability correlated with attitudes shows a negligible relation between these factors. (7) Statistically significant differences exist in the average scores for boys and girls. Girls as a group are more conservative in their civic beliefs than are boys."

## WAR ON INCREASE?

P. A. Sorokin, of the Department of Sociology, Harvard University, and Lieutenant-General N. N. Golvin



have recently completed an exhaustive descriptive study of war, reported to the American Association for the Advancement of Science in Boston, 1933. They studied the ebb and flow of war in ancient Greece, Rome, and Central Europe, and in Germany, Italy, France, Great Britain, Spain, the Netherlands, and Russia for the period from the twelfth century to 1925. Wars were studied from the standpoints of (1) duration, (2) size of fighting forces, (3) casualties, (4) countries involved, and (5) proportion of combatants to total population.

Their data show that "up to the seventeenth century war was comparatively insignificant; beginning with the seventeenth century it increased enormously and did not diminish during the eighteenth century; in the nineteenth century it decreased considerably, though it was still more than one hundred times as great as in the medieval centuries; in the first quarter of the twentieth century it flared up to an absolutely unprecedented height, exceeding the sum total of all wars during preceding centuries in the eight European countries studied. This refutes the theories that war tends to disappear with the progress of civilization."

#### AN EXPERIENCE WITH WORDS

Henry L. Farr, of Manchester, Connecticut, reports an interesting experience with the pronunciation of a word list dealing with history. He found that the pupils in his high-school history classes had studied and heard new terms but that the sound of their own voices creating the strange syllables for the first time embarrassed and confused them. He recounts in part: "The whole list was written on the board and volunteers were called for. I decided to have every boy in the class get those words thoroughly at once. Five boys came forward and stammered their way through. A second group of eleven did much better, speaking loudly enough to be heard in all parts of the room. As usual, 'Sennacherib,' 'Nebuchadnezzar,' and 'hieroglyphic' caused temporary hold-ups, but the boys conquered them in the end. Finally, a boy came out alone and went through the gamut from beginning to end, and when he sat down the whole class wanted a contest to see who could say all the words most readily. Here was a class which had entered the room dreading a word list, yet ended the hour clamoring for more work with them."

#### CONSUMER EDUCATION

The American Association of University Women issues a "kit of materials for consumer study" of value to many social-studies teachers. The kit consists of a selection of pamphlets dealing with problems of purchasing, legislation to protect the consumer, and specific suggestions for buying certain articles. It sells for one dollar and may be secured at the National Headquarters of the Association, 1634 I Street, N.W., Washington, D.C.

#### SUPERVISION

Directors or supervisors will find an excellent program of supervision outlined by David B. Brady of Rochester, New York, in *Educational Method* for December, 1933 (XIII, 3). The author interviewed a

number of department heads and directors and tabulated the best practices of the group. He grouped their objectives as follows: 1. to harmonize the courses with those set down by the state, the central office, and the department; 2. to modify these courses through new research in the field, changing conditions, and experience within the department itself; 3. to provide equipment and necessary facilities for carrying out the program; 4. to develop teacher technique through a program of progressive experiments; 5. to make supervision objective; and 6. to cooperate with other departments.

The author concluded that the methods used could be reduced to three definite lines of action.

1. Department meetings of a general nature were of little value. A general program, however, could well be organized which might provide for a better coordination within the department, involving research in specific fields.

2. Small group meetings of teachers of the same units were considered of much more value, since teachers feel free to exchange teaching ideas and a definite revision program can be easily launched.

3. There was general agreement that visitation and departmental tests tended to bind all parts of the system together. Tests followed by consultation result in much progress. One supervisor teaches classes while other teachers observe. Again the supervisor advises teachers to visit strong partner teachers. Several supervisors required plans for weekly or daily assignments, to be submitted to the main office.

N. E. B.

#### NEGRO LIFE AND HISTORY

The Association for the Study of Negro Life and History, founded by Carter G. Woodson in 1915, publishes materials of interest to social-science teachers. The *Journal of Negro History* is the best known of its publications; it may be secured by joining the Association, paying an annual fee of \$3.00. In addition the Association directs research in its field; it has published some fifteen monographs on aspects of Negro culture. Teachers interested in the work of the Association should address Carter G. Woodson, 1538 Ninth Street, N.W., Washington, D.C.

#### SOCIAL STUDIES LEAFLET

The Southern California Social Science Association, Los Angeles, publishes four times a year, a magazine called *Social Studies Leaflet*. The December, 1933, number contains several articles on the newer interpretation of courses for social studies. T. M. Riley reviews the University of Chicago integrated course and explains the method used in Los Angeles. There is a reprint of the article "Whither the Social Studies?" by Philip W. L. Cox which appeared in the *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House* for October, 1933. Dr. W. J. Klopp, Supervisor of Secondary Education of Long Beach, California, presents "A Critique of Curriculum Revision."

N. E. B.

#### TEACHING CONTROVERSIAL TOPICS

Dr. John T. Tildsley discusses "Controversial Topics in Social Science," in *Junior-Senior High*

*School Clearing House* for December, 1933 (VIII, 4). He takes the stand that we are concerned in bringing the child to his most complete development. The work of the teacher is rather to encourage the pupil to raise questions of validity of evidence and to develop a correct technique for the solution of problems rather than to seek to guide the pupil to the acceptance of his own solution of a problem."

There can be no objection to a teacher expressing his own opinion, provided other authorities are also cited. "The function of the teacher is not to implant in the boy a system of ideas which shall remain with him as a life possession. It is rather to build up in him qualities, habits, and attitudes which shall cause him throughout his life to be a searcher after truth: to be ever engaged in reconstructing his system of ideas, and, therefore, his outlook upon life and so conditioning his participation in life's activities, in view of changing conditions and new truths discovered."

N. E. B.

#### "PROBLEMS OF THE PACIFIC"

In recent years an increasing amount of attention has been devoted to the Pacific area and its problems. The Hawaii Council of the Institute of Pacific Relations, favorably situated for a first-hand study of the problems, is now sponsoring a project which may be of value to American social-science teaching generally. The Education Committee of the Hawaii Council has been coöperating with school administrators and social-science teachers in the preparation of school materials concerning the Pacific. A study of "Ancient Hawaiian Civilization" has already been issued by the Kamehameha Schools in Honolulu. At present the group is making a survey of the treatment accorded China in school textbooks and curricula, and is engaged in preparing classroom materials, including source extracts, for school use. The work on China is being done under the general direction of Dr. P. C. Chang, of Nankai University, now visiting professor at the University of Hawaii. The materials prepared will be available for use in mainland schools as well as in Hawaii.

A. M. C.

#### SUMMARY OF INVESTIGATIONS IN GEOGRAPHY TEACHING

In the *Journal of Geography* for January, 1934 (XXXIII, 1, 23-28), Zoe A. Thralls summarizes certain investigations in the teaching of geography made in 1929-1931, completing the similar summary of in-

vestigations for the years 1903 to 1931 contributed by Norah Zink to the *Thirty-Second Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education*. Miss Thralls summarizes thirty-two articles or theses covering a wide field of research, suggests fields in which research is needed, and stresses the importance of publicity of research materials, both in order to apply their results to practice and in order to avoid needless repetition of investigations.

#### THE SUPREME COURT AND THE N.I.R.A.

The *Congressional Digest* for December, 1933 (XII, 12), contains discussions on "The United States Supreme Court and the N.I.R.A.," which are timely since the Supreme Court faces test cases on the constitutionality of the N.I.R.A. The discussions contain extracts from lectures delivered at Columbia University by Chief Justice Hughes previous to his appointment to the Bench on the "reasons for the creation of the Supreme Court as the court of last resort in the Federal judiciary system and its authority to pass on the validity of the acts of Congress." Mark Sullivan discusses the opinions of the nine men who compose the Supreme Court today. The "Pro and Con" section contains discussions of all phases of the question of the probable interpretation by the Supreme Court of the National Industrial Recovery Act; also there are to be found citations from the constitutional provisions creating the Supreme Court and from the Act of the First Congress, establishing it, together with an authoritative summary of the National Industrial Recovery Act.

N. E. B.

Announcement has recently been made that the Educational Committee of the League of Nations Association is once more holding its Annual Examination for High School Students on the subject of the League of Nations. The date for this Examination, now in its eighth year, is March 23. All public high schools in the United States have been invited to register with the headquarters of the Association at 6 East 39th Street, New York City. *A Brief History of the League of Nations*, published by the Committee, will again constitute the basis of the Examination, together with a Supplement covering League events in 1933. The national winner of the contest will as usual be awarded a trip to Europe including a special visit to Geneva. Only once in the seven years of the contest, the Committee states, has the national winner been a girl, and most years the prize winner has come from a school west of the Mississippi.

The October-December *Economic History Review* has an article by Professor H. Hauser on "The Characteristic Features on French Economic History" from the middle of the Eighteenth to the middle of the sixteenth century, in which he traces the evolution of French economic life between the financial crisis in 1557 and the greater crisis which overthrew the old regime.

J. Henry Richardson's analysis of President Roosevelt's recovery experiment in the January *London Quarterly Review* is careful and impartial, but the author carefully refrains from expressing any opinion on the features he discusses. The same number of this magazine contains an excellent study of the "Oxford Movement" by Sydney G. Dimond and a review of the centenary of the same movement by John Telford.

## Book Reviews

Edited by PROFESSORS HARRY J. CARMAN AND J. BARTLETT BREBNER, *Columbia University*

- Life of John Taylor. The Story of a Brilliant Leader in the Early Virginia State Rights School.* By Henry H. Simms. The William Byrd Press, Inc., Richmond, 1932. vii, 234 pp.
- Benjamin Chew, 1722-1810.* By Burton Alva Konkle. University of Pennsylvania Press, Philadelphia, 1932. xix, 316 pp.
- Roger Williams, New England Firebrand.* By James Ernst. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1932. xiv, 538 pp.
- Alexander Spotswood, Governor of Colonial Virginia 1710-1722.* By Leonidas Dodson. University of Pennsylvania Press, Philadelphia, 1932. x, 323 pp.
- Gouverneur Kemble Warren, The Life and Letters of An American Soldier 1830-1882.* By Emerson Gifford Taylor. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston and New York, 1932. xii, 256 pp.
- General William Eaton, The Failure of An Idea.* By Frances Rennel Rodd. Minton, Balch and Company, New York, 1932. xi, 314 pp.
- Beauregard, The Great Creole.* By Hamilton Basso. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1933. xiv, 333 pp.
- Archibald Cary Coolidge, Life and Letters.* By Howard Jefferson Coolidge and Robert Howard Lord. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston and New York, 1932. xiv, 368 pp.
- Biography and the Human Heart.* By Gamaliel Bradford. Houghton, Mifflin Company, Boston and New York, 1932. 283 pp.
- Stephen Foster, America's Troubadour.* By John Tasker Howard. Thomas Y. Crowell Company, New York, 1934. xii, 445 pp.

The biographies listed above cover a wide range of personages and activities. Some are full size portraits, others are not. Some appear for the first time, others have been portrayed before by other artists. With one or two exceptions all belong to that saner school of biography which a few years ago was in eclipse but which fortunately is again coming into favorable repute. All constitute valuable additions to the literature of American history and should find a place in every worth-while library.

John Taylor whom Dr. Simms portrays has long been neglected despite the fact that he was easily one of the intellectual giants of his time. Born in Caroline county, Virginia, about the middle of the eighteenth century, reared among the planter class and becoming a planter himself, he not only opposed Great Britain during the American Revolution but those who favored a highly centralized government for the new-born republic. Indeed, throughout his life he remained a true Jeffersonian. He hated special privilege even lamenting the existence of slavery. One of the South's lead-

ing agriculturalists he carried on numerous experiments on his plantation and sought to help others by giving them a detailed account of his improvements. His *Arator* published in 1813 and consisting of a series of agricultural essays, went through many editions. In addition to his writings on agriculture, Taylor found time to prepare four volumes on the Federal Constitution totaling 1665 pages. He also wrote numerous pamphlets and carried on an extensive correspondence. Dr. Simms has drawn his material largely from manuscripts and from Taylor's published writings. The volume is not only informing but it stands out as a first rate piece of scholarly work.

Benjamin Chew, colonial lawyer, head of the Pennsylvania Judiciary system under colony and commonwealth and one of Philadelphia's leading citizens, has been sympathetically and yet very impartially handled by his biographer. Born of good family, trained in the law in the office of Andrew Hamilton, one of America's leading jurists, and in the Middle Temple in London, Chew at the eve of the Revolution was one of the outstanding lawyers in America. Believing in reform within the Empire rather than in revolution and redress of grievances rather than in independence, he withdrew in 1776 from public life. Fifteen years later he was induced to accept a seat on the first common council of Philadelphia. Shortly after he became president of the High Court of Errors and Appeals, a position which he retained until 1904. Instead of a Tory as he has so frequently been designated, Chew appears in these pages in a very different light. The author has skillfully woven a mass of source material into the text.

Every student of American intellectual history is indebted to Dr. Ernst for his full length biography of Rhode Island's founder. Inspired by the late V. L. Parrington, Dr. Ernst came to the conclusion that the story of Roger Williams had been distorted by the Historians of New England who depended upon the opponents of Williams for source material. Accordingly, he not only carefully reexamined the references to Williams by John Cotton, Morton, Hubbard, John Eliot, Cotton Mather and others but turned to other source material notably the *Egerton Manuscript Collection* and the *Thomason Collection of Commonwealth Pamphlets*. As a result Williams stands forth in this volume as an ardent rebel against oppression and as a defender of full liberty of conscience, complete separation of church and state, and democratic government. As such he belongs in the class with Thomas Paine, Jefferson, Channing and those other American non-conformists who have contributed so much to the development of American thought and democracy.

Dr. Dodson's monographic study of one of America's outstanding colonial governors sheds considerable new light upon the activities of Alexander Spotswood. Even more, it is especially informing in its treatment of Vir-



ginia's relation with the Indians, her land system, agriculture, commerce and manufacture. Dr. Dodson agrees with other students of Spotswood's regime that Spotswood was a man of talent, stubborn and self-willed but tactless and therefore provocative of dissension. The quit-rent appendix is illuminating.

Of the military biographies which have appeared in recent years few, if any, are entitled to outrank Colonel Taylor's account of Gouverneur Kemble Warren. Prefaced with an introduction by Dr. A. C. Flick, State Historian of New York, this volume, based entirely upon source material, paints a picture of a notable son of the Empire State. Educated in the schools of his native state and graduating second in his class at West Point he proved to be an officer of extraordinary ability in military strategy. Coupled with high intelligence was untarnished character. He could brook no incompetence and stupidity. He loved those under his command and at all times acted in their behalf. He was fearless and independent and hated hypocrisy and dishonesty. It was because of these traits that the incompetent, ambitious and unappreciative misunderstood him and finally brought about his removal from command of the Fifty Army Corps after the battle of Five Forks in 1865. This unjust dismissal broke his proud spirit and the remaining years of his life were spent in an effort to undo this colossal injustice. Colonel Taylor has done an excellent job and this volume will be welcomed not only by students of military history particularly of the American Civil War

but by all those who rejoice in the triumph of right over wrong.

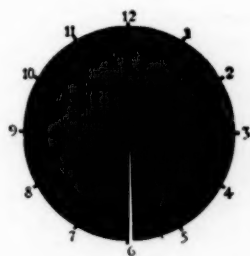
Mr. Rodd's lively account of the eccentric patriot, General William Eaton and particularly of Eaton's expedition from Alexandria across the North African desert to Derna in his campaign against the Barbary States is occasionally marred by bias and interpretations which are not substantiated by fact. To say for example, that the American War of Independence was fought on a political and not on an economic issue (p. 8) reveals either bias or lack of acquaintance with the results of recent historical scholarship. Likewise it is difficult to understand Mr. Rodd's comments concerning Jefferson's attitude toward war. Because Jefferson wanted peace did that make him less "healthy-minded" than Congress? (p. 80). Jefferson's doubts whether the Constitution allowed the incorporation of Louisiana into the United States is no reason for saying that he had "psychological dyspepsia" (p. 99). "Munroe" (p. 97) should read "Monroe." Despite annoyances such as these the volume has great merit. Mr. Rodd has had access to trustworthy sources and on the whole has used them skillfully. If for no other reason the book deserves consideration for the light it sheds upon American relations with the Barbary states and for the explosion of the several myths concerning American naval operations in the Mediterranean.

At the hands of Hamilton Basso, General Beauregard takes on new proportions both as a man and as a military leader. In the past, historians have been some-

## Pahlow: MAN'S GREAT ADVENTURE

Too often pupils learn the names of the Greek philosophers but never learn what a philosopher is; they learn about Greek schools but never learn what a school is; they learn about Roman law but do not learn why people have laws. These things, and many others, they can learn from "Man's Great Adventure," the popular new book that is re-making the world history course.

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what prone to regard Beauregard as a second or a third rater. Mr. Basso does not agree and those who read his pages will, in the opinion of the reviewer, be inclined to accept his verdict. That he thinks that Beauregard was thwarted by Jefferson Davis is evident although he does not minimize the former's shortcomings. Mr. Basso's treatment throughout is sympathetic but not over so. Occasionally, but not frequently, he takes a little dig at the North but this is understandable. Students of military history and of the Confederacy are indebted to him for this contribution.

We are perhaps a little too near to the time in which he lived to have a definitive biography of Archibald Cary Coolidge. Be that as it may the volume here under review is no hasty sketch of this distinguished son of Harvard. The editors and authors—one a younger brother and the other a professor of history trained by Professor Coolidge—have depended for materials chiefly upon Professor Coolidge's voluminous private correspondence and upon the personal recollections of friends and students. The nineteen chapters treat of boyhood and young manhood, his thirty-five years at Harvard, writings, travel, the Harvard Library, interest and participation in international affairs, international-mindedness and the last years. The generous use of letters enhances the value of the book and when one has finished the last page he lays it aside with the thought that the passing of this cultured, kindly gentleman has left the world poorer.

Gamaliel Bradford's posthumous book is a fitting climax to the long list of volumes with which he enriched American biographic literature. Were it within the power of the reviewer he would have every high school boy and girl and every college student read the first and last essays in this volume. These two essays set forth with rare acumen a good bit of the warp and woof of human life. It seems strange indeed, that in the twentieth century with all our boasted progress in education that we have seemingly ignored the possibilities of doing more with biography as a part of the basis of a liberal education. Particularly is this true when we consider the time that is devoted to the teaching of what purports to be history—much of which at best is myth or unimportant surface material several times rehashed. Should biography ever find a niche in our educational system these two essays may well be used as a sort of stepping stone to future work. The biographic sketches of Longfellow, Whitman, Charlotte Cushman, Hunt, Jones Very and others are admirable illustrations of what may be done with biography within brief space limits.

The story of Stephen Foster's life has been three times told—first by his brother Morrison Foster, in 1896, then by Harold V. Milligan in 1920, and now, by John Tasker Howard. For those acquainted with all three biographies there can be no doubt that Mr. Howard's is by far the best and will in all probability be regarded as the definitive story of Foster's life. It is more than biography, however, for as Mr. Howard points out in his preface, his volume may well be regarded as a source book, so freely has he quoted and cited documentary material—boyhood, schooling, his first songs, marriage, finances, the last years are but-

tressed by a wealth of material drawn from family letters, manuscript, accounts and personal records. One is amazed at the number of songs written by Foster. Yet he was always behind financially partly because profits from his efforts went into the pockets of others and partly because Foster was a free and easy spender and was addicted to liquor. The volume with its many excellent illustrations is not only a first rate biography but a valuable contribution to the literature of American music.

*Human Geography of the South.* By Rupert B. Vance. University of North Carolina Press, Chapel Hill, 1932. xiv, 596 pp. \$4.00.

In a book of wide scope, and crammed with detail, Dr. Vance has undertaken to survey the South from the point of view of human adequacy "to master the resources of its region and to develop thereon a distinctive and competent culture." He has succeeded very largely in this difficult undertaking, though every reviewer may differ with him as to proper balancing of factual content, and statement of conclusions.

Physical and cultural backgrounds together with movements of population are first described. The ways of life on the frontier plantation lasted till now or have left survivals strongly affecting present conditions. The success or failure of man in exploiting the resources of the several southern regions are carefully considered. Climate in relation to the human activity, its general beneficence, and the resulting neglect of diseases in men and livestock, dietary inadequacies with its heavy social costs are marshalled in complete factual array. But these alleged climatic disadvantages are attributed to other causes.

Lower than any other sections of the country in wealth, education, cultural achievement and health, the South is burdened with the heritage of a colonial economy. The debtor population with low standards of living, small use of capital, backward use of technology are attributed to an economy of regional exploitation for the benefit of outside interests.

In conclusion, Dr. Vance calls for regional planning as being a basic necessity for development of the South, much of which is now ready to fit into the pattern of an industrial society. Such tasks as reorganization in agriculture, social rehabilitation, reforestation and flood control are difficult and numerous, but must be bravely undertaken.

Studies such as these are the stuff of which economic plans must be made. Dr. Vance is to be commended for this excellent effort.

HUBERT F. HAVLIK

Columbia University

*History of the State of New York*, Vols. I-IV. Edited by Alexander C. Flick. New York, Columbia University Press, 1933. Vol. I, xxxi, 361 pp.; Vol. II, xii, 437 pp.; Vol. III, xii, 387 pp.; Vol. IV, xiv, 387 pp.; \$5.00 a volume, to be completed in ten volumes.

The understanding of American history has suffered from several grave distortions which have hindered the clear vision of students of all grades. One of these has

been a preoccupation with the working of the federal system which has focussed attention upon the national government and party politics. Another has been the frontier thesis which has pointed to the distant west and declared that there lay the secret of the nation's growth. National history has been painted on too large a canvas with too heavy a brush, the result is a few oversize figures and scenes emphasized by masses of color, while perspective, revealing detail and true sense of reality have been thereby neglected.

The actual history of the United States is in greater part the story of the life of its people. These people have almost without exception dwelt in communities other than the capital, which in turn have been parts of states, and their affairs have been much confined within state borders, governed by state laws, served by state officials, and ordered by local community customs. The most populous of these states have always been east of the Mississippi and on the eastern seaboard; the great majority of them never have known much about the frontier except by hearsay. Only by careful scrutiny of the history of these localities, towns, counties and states, can a profound understanding be obtained of the real history of the nation.

This study is difficult because of the poor quality of available state history. Most of it is hastily composed background used to introduce multitudinous biographies in appended volumes. In the eastern states undue emphasis has been placed on the colonial and revolutionary periods and everywhere politics and military activity have undeserved prominence. Even state histories written for the schools suffer from those unfortunate biases. Worse still the whole subject of state history has been neglected by professional historians who have seemed to consider it beneath their notice.

In 1918 Illinois celebrated the centennial of its admission to the Union and as a part of the commemoration projected and completed a series of volumes by the leading scholars of the state which in more than one sense made history. In spite of the preëminent character of this example, but one other state, Massachusetts, saw fit to follow it. Not until a few years ago did the prospect grow bright for another standard history. Then the New York State Historical Association in coöperation with Columbia University Press decided to undertake a ten volume history which should be at once authoritative and yet attractive to the general reader and which should describe the life and culture of the people of the State. To Dr. Alexander C. Flick, State historian, was entrusted the editorial management of the great enterprise.

To date four volumes have appeared, the product of twenty-eight contributors from the leading libraries and educational and historical institutions of the State. These contributors have brought the story from the age of geological creation down to 1783. The first volume, "Wigwam and Bouwerie" has chapters on the geological formation, the aboriginal inhabitants and the Dutch settlement of the colony. The story of the creation of the soil of the state is told in unusual fashion, one literally sees the dry land rise out of the sea, buckle and crack, and watches the slow progress and

recession of the glaciers. The reader leaves the chapter with a sense of epic process slightly marred by a variety of geological technicalities. The chapters on the Indians trace the origin of the aboriginal inhabitants as well as their customs, organization, conflicts and conquests, culminating in the great Iroquois Confederacy. These like the preceding chapter have the ring of authority and the zest of vivid portrayal. The critic may suggest that these topics have been allotted overmuch space.

A chapter on the voyages of discovery which were the means of revealing New York to Europeans is followed by a series dealing with the Dutch era, which extend into the second volume, "Under Duke and King." The scheme of treatment has been to divide this half century into eight topics. The first two on the Dutch European background and the settlement are by the Dutch scholar, Prof. Adriaan J. Barnouw, who brings to his task a large store of Dutch history and an understanding of the Dutch mode of action which is very enlightening. The next two chapters deal with the political management of the colony and the distribution of the land. The last two chapters on the economic, social and cultural conditions are a refreshing touch for they deal with topics and data so often omitted. The critic may wish that these chapters might have been written larger, even at the expense of the political story, which though well written, is rather more than a twice told tale. The discussion of Dutch rule is concluded with chapters on Dutch relations with their American neighbors and the conquest by the British.

In dealing with the period of English control, the struggle for home rule, relations with the French, the growth of commerce and wealth, the emergence of "society," the rise of a legal system, and the advance of culture are the topics concluded by a convenient chapter entitled a "Summary of the English Period." These chapters succeed in doing what the editors wish, namely to give account of the many-sided development of the colony and not to restrict the reader to the usual story of colonial political history. There is one shortcoming, however, a shortcoming which is characteristic of so much social and economic history. Political history has achieved a fairly coherent synthesis, based quite generally on a chronology and treated as a series of causes and effects. But economic, social and cultural material have yet to be provided with a well-knit synthesis. To date there is much less of order than there should be. This tendency is observable in the work under review when the political and the other chapters are compared. Such a result, however, is, as yet, inevitable, for the subject is too new to be perfectly developed.

Half of the third volume, "Whig and Tory," and all of the fourth, "The New State," deal with the Revolutionary struggle in notable fashion. These chapters present what may be the most elaborate, and what certainly is the freshest, treatment of the participation of any of the colonies in the Revolution. One sees here, more clearly portrayed than it can be found elsewhere, the actual technique of the move: the workings of the revolutionary committees, the activity of the New York



members of the Continental Congress, the transition from colony to state, the difficult financial and supply problem, the fluctuating military fortunes of the state, the social background, the struggle with the Tories, the heroism of the women, and the final coming of peace. These chapters in spite of the fact that they are the product of twelve different authors present a vigorous unified picture of the struggle, so difficult and so complex. The only qualification that suggests itself is that perhaps too much space has been allotted to these twenty years.

This in brief is the plan projected and to this extent followed by Dr. Flick and his associates of the New York State Historical Association. To crown their efforts, they had the good fortune to secure splendid book making under the direction of the Columbia University Press. These books are a delight to the eye and are first class examples of the book designing art. The full page reproductions of portraits and documents are well made and the end papers are original and appropriate. One cannot speak too highly of the artistic merit of the work of Paul Laune who designed the end papers, furnished several maps and, at the beginning of each chapter, supplied very effective half-title decorations.

These volumes and those which are to come present to teachers a very useful tool. In the first place they combine very happily the popular and the scholarly treatment, they are pleasant to read and yet based on abundant sources intelligently interpreted. Therefore not only will they supply teachers themselves with a wealth of illustrative material but also will prove a convenient source of assignments for outside readings, essays, and oral reports. In New York State, teachers of American History when dealing with the more general currents of national development can illustrate many of them very effectively by reference to that particular trend in the Empire State. Such illustration by appealing to local pride and familiarity with home scenes can add a vivid and often times clinching force to the teaching of history.

To the general study of American history this project is a contribution which should be used as a text for many an historical exhortation on the value of local history. Of the forty-eight states very few have adequate, intensive, and accurate accounts. Most of the existing work has been done commercially. Yet each state has a corps of history teachers and most have at least one historical organization. All the states have great masses of unexploited data, much of it uncollected, a great deal of it in danger of destruction. Yet even the American Historical Association neglects this field. We are in the process of social adjustment which is calling for leaders with keen historical insight and perspective, the historians of the country should furnish them a far more complete and adequate conception of the process of social evolution as it has been at work to date. Such a conception, however, will not be obtained through a telescope but through a microscope. We must go back to the community and learn to know it. But how can we do it unless we follow the example of the scholars of Illinois, New Jersey, Massachusetts,

and, latest, of New York and go to the root of the matter?

ROY F. NICHOLS

University of Pennsylvania

*A Charter for the Social Sciences in the Schools.* By Charles A. Beard. *Report of the Commission on the Social Studies, Part I.* The American Historical Association. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. 1932. xii, 122 pp. \$1.25.

*An Introduction to the History of the Social Sciences in Schools.* By Henry Johnson. *Report of the Commission on the Social Studies, Part II.* American Historical Association. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. 1932. vii+145 pp. \$1.25.

In the American educational world of today, the Social Sciences occupy a position of unchallenged importance, but the rapidly changing world of the present century has raised up grave problems the solution of which requires a searching examination into the very purposes of these Sciences. In the Middle Ages theology was the sum totality of human knowledge—the capstone of higher education. As the fund of human knowledge increased, one by one the various individual sciences of today—both social and physical—broke away from the parent stem. Whatever other explanations for this phenomenon may be offered, the fact remains that it was in large part due to this very increase in knowledge—man is not possessed of a great enough a mind, nor a long enough a life to master the entire field of human knowledge. He must perforce content himself with the attempted mastery of some particular branch thereof; in short, he must specialize. The total result of all this has been to produce a group of fields of specialization, in reality closely related, in educational practice usually poles apart. Doubtless, those engaged in giving instruction in these subjects have been fully aware of the fact of a nexus with other subjects, but its exact nature, and its importance to the student, if any, has been beyond their ken. Yet, the first thing which impressed itself upon the Commission on the Social Studies was the unity of the Social Sciences, and the impossibility of reaching any conclusions with regard to one, without having taken all the others into consideration. Scholarship seeks knowledge from all sources, and its ultimate aim is the truth. But scholarship in the Social Sciences must not content itself with a single goal. It must also have as its purpose the preparation of a people that they may be socially useful to the community through the possession of a "many-sided personality." And there is the great difficulty in the whole matter. One cannot foretell what the social necessities, nor the accepted truth of another generation will be.

Professor Beard has presented the American educational world with a most stimulating work. One cannot read it without agreeing with its statements and conclusions. Its only possible fault lies in its tendency to excessive length for the message it carries, and an occasional vagueness arising from the fact that Professor Beard assumes that the reader is as erudite as himself.

The French make a meticulous distinction between

*nouveau* and *nouvel*: a distinction which is lost upon the great majority of Americans, to whom newness is not dependent upon novelty. It is sufficient unto their needs that the Idea be one which its promulgator has not hitherto expounded, contingent, of course, upon the condition that it be not already common coin. This state of mind is particularly applicable to the situation with regard to the methods of teaching the social sciences. That these sciences (which have been labeled by smart sophisticates as neither social nor sciences) are socially useful in the school curriculum is today accepted as a sound educational axiom. But what about the methods? The decade since the War has witnessed a veritable flood of theories as to the best methods by which to approach the question of practical instruction. Most of these have been hailed by their sponsors and enthusiasts as "new," as "progressive." If one is to judge by the vigorous applause which greeted the suggestion made at the 1932 meeting of the Virginia Education Association at Richmond, that many of these "gadgets" be thrown out in favor of a return to the older principles of instruction, one may safely assume that many of these new and progressive theories have been found wanting when the acid test of practical school room practice was applied. But there is a catch in all this. How many have subjected themselves to the mental agony of reconciling themselves to the stark fact that the "old established principles" and the new theories are alike merely modern adaptations of principles of education which may be traced back for centuries? As Professor Johnson shows, with painful clarity, there have been few suggestions which have been new in the sense of being novel. But it has been possible to pass them off as new because of the uncritical attitude of the public and the teaching profession alike, an attitude best exemplified in the act whereby Dr. Flexner witheringly designated Professor Johnson's course in the past teaching of history as *ad hoc*. At a time when many of our educational leaders give every evidence of myopia induced by the dazzling brilliance of the progressive schemes of education, it would be well for every educator who is sincerely interested in the future of his profession to avail himself of Professor Johnson's very worth while work.

HOWARD BRITTON MORRIS

College of the City of New York

*The Cambridge History of India, VI, The Indian Empire, 1858-1918*; also published as *The Cambridge History of the British Empire, V*. Edited by H. H. Dodwell. Cambridge: at the University Press, New York, the Macmillan Company, 1932. xxiv, 660 pp. \$7.00.

Readers should not expect in this volume much about the life of Indians or of the advantages to Great Britain of her rich Asiatic prize. It is predominantly a history of British empire, of what the British have done for India, and most of all a record of the men and the measures by which India has been governed. All of the chapters are administrative in point of view, in fact out of a total of thirty-three the only chapters which are not intentionally records of policies and institutions

are one on the Mutiny, one on foreign policy, two on territorial expansion, one on the Great War and three on Indian political self-consciousness during the last fifty years. One reason for this emphasis is that considerations of planning a volume which belongs to two of the Cambridge series have meant the inclusion of nine chapters on the administrative history from 1818 to 1858 which might otherwise have appeared in volume V. This volume is the historical record of a century of British government of alien peoples.

Even when it is viewed as that kind of compendium by thirteen contributors almost all from the Indian Services, the volume seems open to one serious criticism in that no systematic attempt is made to explain why it was worth while to expend a century of effort, often unprofitable to the individuals who made it, even altruistic on their parts, and to spend such immense sums of money. Mr. Hailey's chapter on Indian finances makes good reading for a treasury expert, but it does not even indicate a profit and loss account for the British investor and taxpayer. Nor is the answer simply that John Company got the English in and they could not decently withdraw. It paid Great Britain to hold India and something of that profit ought to have been demonstrated. It also doubtless paid the Indians to have British governors, particularly after the Mutiny brought direct British rule, but it would be hard to measure the worth of those services. The high character of them, particularly in the field of public works, sanitation and famine relief and prevention, is honestly and not too proudly set forth here and the one great and probably inevitable failure, that is, the character and direction of education, is not concealed or unduly condoned. But in our time the absence of careful, statistical economic history in a volume of these pretensions is a serious one. Incidental comment on tax yields, depressions, famines and railway-building is not enough. While social history is also neglected, interesting fragments of it occur frequently through the pages because government to be good government was forced to make up its mind about such institutions as slavery, infanticide and sati. The emergence of the products of Westernization also presented administrative problems. It should not have been impossible, however, to have used the five regions adopted for convenience in the administrative history for records of the change in Indian ways of living, as for instance the increased use of Western manufactures or the rise of an Indian industry and finance of the prevailing world type.

No doubt candidates for the Indian Civil Service will have to read the volume and will be grateful for its system, its comprehensiveness and its bibliographical guidance, particularly to obscure and valuable official reports. Administrators and students of administration elsewhere will find it faithful and crammed with the fruits of experience. In general, the reading will be hard work, for most of the chapters, while lucid, contain only a page or two of summary or interpretation, although many of them start freshly with very apt quotations. Sir H. Verney Lovett in his ten chapters from time to time rises above the prevailing tone of a government report, most notably in his chapter on

famine policy and in some of his comment on Indian political movements. Mr. T. Rice Holmes gets drama into his very military account of the Mutiny, an event which the editor and he interpret as "a Brahman reaction" against the reforms and changes introduced in the last years of the Company's rule, thus giving what will seem to many a somewhat inadequate interpretation. B.

*The World Since 1914.* By Walter Consuelo Langsam. The Macmillan Co., New York, 1933. xiv, 742 pp. \$3.00.

The proverbial expression that the function of the historian is the same as that of the Recording Angel has long since fallen into desuetude for the simple reason that it has never been true. If there ever was any such similarity in the duties of these two Recorders, it must have been more apparent than real, in form rather than in substance. And the best proof for such an argument is to be had in our approach to contemporary history, where the chief and the most baffling task of the historian is not the mere amassing and recording of facts, but the selection of only a few from the myriads of facts and then through them the writing of *his* own history. For, as has been said, "what is the justification for the publication of a new historical work" if not the fact that its "author disagrees with his predecessors" and holds opinions concerning some facts that are not entirely shared by many members of the *Genossenschaft*? If there were none others, that reason alone is sufficient to justify the issuance of this book—one dealing with the latest and the most significant portion of the history of this generation and written by one who also is of that generation. That in itself is as significant as the work is welcome.

Dr. Langsam, it seems, has deliberately set out to write a textbook and has tried to be up-to-date. Indeed, his efforts in the second direction has been so determined that six months after the first printing of the book he has prepared a supplementary chapter, covering the events from January to about September, 1933. There, within the covers of a book of about 700 thickly printed pages we have the history of the world since 1914. Out of the welter of catastrophic events and truly epoch-making happenings the author has culled only the more salient and the most significant ones with care and has written them up in a light and lively language that is likely to attract the general public as well as the student in classroom. A few select photographic illustrations perhaps will increase the interest of many a casual reader; the fewer charts and diagrams will undoubtedly help to explain the more complicated phases of such matters as the structure of the governmental machinery of the Soviet Union, the reparation tangle, etc.; and the numerous maps (especially those in color) are of great help to every reader. Aside from these true-to-form merits, which are truly deserving, there is also a bibliography running over thirty pages, in which are found an innumerable variety of books dealing with nearly every phase of historic events, and a fairly adequate index (one in the first printing of the book and another in the supplementary chapter). So much for the mechanical make-

up of the book. Only a few remarks as to the essence and the substance of it should be sufficient.

As a writer of textbooks it is almost inevitable that the author should be liable to some of the errors committed by nearly all such writers. The matter of interpreting and presenting some complex events in lively language has the temptation of appearing too simple. And this despite the fact that some historic events defy simple analysis and simpler presentation. In this work such a case is offered in the author's treatment of the fall of Labor cabinet in England and the events immediately following it in 1931. There, it seems to the reviewer, clearness has been sacrificed to simplicity and brevity, and of course nothing has been gained. Such a minor, though not an unimportant confusion, should not deter the reader from the principal gaps of the book which consist in some important omissions. In *The World Since 1914* it would have been well to make room for a chapter dealing with the Scandinavian countries; another chapter on the countries of the Middle East would also have been in order; while at least one adequate chapter on the Central and South American countries would have been indispensable. The omission of the last suggested chapter seems as obvious as its inclusion would seem almost requisite.

A. O. SARNISSIAN

University of Illinois

*Rabble in Arms.* By Kenneth Roberts. Garden City, Doubleday, Doran and Company, 1933. 870 pp. \$2.50.

Mr. Roberts has done rather more in his novel of the men of Arundel, Maine, who starved and fought with Arnold in his valiant attempts to defeat or delay the invasion from Canada in 1776 by Carleton and Burgoyne. He has also succeeded in writing good history. Seldom has any writer penetrated so deeply into the character of the men who engaged in the American Revolution. The selfishness and ineffectiveness of the Continental Congress, the quick and ingenious and optimistic Arnold, doomed continually to the distrust and jealousy of the mediocre officers associated with him, the mutual hatred of New Englanders and New Yorkers, the untrustworthy character of all militia, the salty philosophy of the Yankee scout are all interestingly and convincingly portrayed.

Though the story element of the novel is strong, hinging upon the efforts of Peter Merrill, one of Arnold's scouts, to save his brother Nathaniel from the clutches of Marie de Sabrevois, a Canadian spy as charming as she is dangerous, yet to a student of history the book has an appeal entirely separate from that. First, it is placed in a most glamorous and fascinating setting: the seaports and woods of Maine, the lakes and rivers of the Champlain Valley, the great St. Lawrence itself and the lakes which tap the American wilderness of that day. Second, Mr. Roberts has peopled this region with the oddest and most varied characters. Benedict Arnold, genius of rapid thought and decisive action; the weak and untrustworthy Gates; the wily Wilkinson, scheming to be a general; the dignified and patriotic Schuyler, satisfied with per-



sonal eclipse if by such means the cause could be won; the childish and thoughtless St. Clair, to whose carelessness the loss of Ticonderoga can be attributed; these and a host of half breeds and Indians, buckskin riflemen and ragged Continental soldiers, Canadian loyalists and British soldiers, fight and toil and fall in the epic struggle for a continent. It is to Mr. Roberts' credit that, in building this first rate narrative of the first three years of the Revolution, he has immersed himself in the historical sources to such an extent that his general conclusions are in every case sound. Perhaps the most interesting part of the book is the fact that it is in reality a defense of Benedict Arnold, and could almost be considered, through the medium of his admirers from Maine, a character sketch or biography of the man. Mr. Roberts apparently believes, with much justification, that the mediocrity, the blind stupidity, and the insane jealousy of the men in high office in the United States really provided the main cause of Arnold's later desertion of the patriot cause. Such a plea, though it may be overdone in the narrative, is a conclusion of much probability. Certainly too much, much too much, has been made of Arnold's technical treason in a war which saw troops desert in masses before campaigns and officers join cabals to oust the best leaders, in order that they themselves might have an unfair advantage in the winning of future campaigns. Mr. Roberts goes far to explain how malign, how persistent were the forces of detraction and false rumor which almost inevitably wore down the morale of Arnold and which attempted to do so with Schuyler and Washington, with, we are thankful to recall, less success than with their unfortunate associate.

C. R. HALL

Adelphi College

*The Company of the Indies in the Days of Dupleix.*

By Wilbert Harold Dalglish, Easton, Pa.: Chemical Publishing Co., Inc., 1933. x, 238 pp. \$2 paper bound and \$2.75 in cloth.

The East India Company, chief instrument of French imperialistic activity in the orient during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, and Dupleix, its directing genius, both sank into quick oblivion following Clive's spectacular triumph in the Seven Years' War. The one and the other alike were unceremoniously relegated to that limbo of half-forgotten things reserved for even notable undertakings which fail of success and, as recently as a generation ago, the majority of French histories allotted them but a few scant lines at most. The study of European expansion as one of the most interesting phenomena of modern times has, however, made their significance in world affairs clearly evident and, in our own day, both are undergoing thorough rehabilitation.

Weber's *La Compagnie Française des Indes, 1604-1875* (Paris, 1904), breaking virgin ground, is a classic. Cultru's and Guénin's biographies (Paris, 1904 and 1908 respectively) first revealed the true Dupleix. There have been others. But unquestionably the master work in the whole field is Martineau's *Dupleix et l'Inde Française* (4 vols., Paris, 1920-1928), hailed by

many as the most notable contribution to the literature of colonial history of our generation.

The present work, inspired by personal contact with Professor Martineau, seeks to further this revival of interest in French activities in India by explaining the overseas end of the administrative machinery, how problems of corporation finance were met, how justice was rendered, what relations existed between the Company, the French government and native rulers, as well as how commerce was handled. This it does, after a fashion, but in so slovenly a manner as to afford but scant credit for new world scholarship.

The book's outstanding characteristic is mediocrity. From a feeble preface, making jejune acknowledgment for aid in organization, to an almost apologetic conclusion, suggesting regret at the failure to develop revolutionary theories, the author reveals no particular fitness for either historical research or lucid presentation, as well as too heavy dependence upon Weber and Martineau.

The reader who resolutely plods through the volume will gain some recompense—there is sufficient information to warrant the effort, although it is badly presented and seldom interpreted. But he will wish that someone thoroughly familiar with the background and endowed with Gallic felicity of expression had undertaken the study. No need would then exist for another survey of the subject.

The bibliography is disfigured by unorthodox forms of entry and such errors as listing the 1873 edition of Leroy-Beaulieu's study of modern colonization instead of the standard two volume one of 1908; references have been placed at the end of each chapter instead of at the bottoms of the several pages where they properly belong in a study of this nature; the index has been badly handled. The placing of the copyright notice on the third cover page lends the final touch of amateurishness to what was, presumably, meant to be a serious professional performance.

LOWELL JOSEPH RAGATZ

The George Washington University

*The March of Civilization.* By Jesse E. Wrench. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1931. xxvi, 847 pp.

*Directed Study Workbook in World History.* By Elmer Ellis. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1933. xxiv, 217 pp.

Mr. Wrench's book is another attempt to provide secondary school students of World History with "a connected narrative of the struggles, reverses, and triumphs which humanity has undergone."

Part I, beginning with "An Introduction to World History" and a chapter on "How the World Came to Be," deals with "Ancient and Medieval World"; and Part II, "Modern World," carries the story down to 1931, closing with a chapter on "Obstacles in the March of Civilization." It is significant that the Far East receives its share of consideration, as does early America. Utilizing political history "as a main connecting link" the writer presents his narrative clearly and simply in the light of man's acquisition of control

over the forces of nature, and enhances it with numerous well-chosen maps and illustrations. Each chapter is accompanied by a list of "Problems and Practice Exercises," and a brief "Bibliography." The volume is rounded out with a satisfactory index.

But the same might be said of most of the secondary school textbooks on World History! They are useful and pleasing in a genteel and passive fashion, but they lack real interest for the high school student. They gloss over the fascinating details of so-called "social history," and treat the rest in the orthodox manner. A few endeavors to be provocative, but without much success. In general they seem written rather to inform than to attract their readers. And their potential value may be judged accordingly. Mr. Wrench's book is, perhaps, typical of the group—no better, no worse.

Mr. Ellis' *Workbook*, designed to accompany *The March of Civilization*, is a superior piece of work as such projects go. Following the divisions of the textbook, it presents nine study units composed of discussion questions, fact questions, outline maps, map problems, reading reports, and somewhat formidable uncritical bibliographies. But without the guidance of a highly intelligent teacher, the use of such a workbook may easily resolve itself into a perpetuation of what has been called very aptly "Schnitzelbank education."

JOHN HALL STEWART

Western Reserve University

## Book Notes

In 1908 the State Historical Society of Iowa published a volume entitled *Amana: the Community of True Inspiration*. So favorably received was this volume that the edition was soon exhausted. Since that time several fundamental changes in the organization of the Community have occurred. Therefore a new volume *Amana That Was and Amana That Is* (The State Historical Society of Iowa, Iowa City, 1932. 502 pp.) has been prepared by Bertha M. H. Shambaugh. The volume is divided into two parts. Part I covering more than half the space traces the early history of the Community in America, its life and institutions and its religious beliefs and customs. It is, as its subtitle implies, retrospective. Part II is interpretative of the changes made in June 1932. These changes involved the passing of the old order and the inauguration of a new "planned society," the separation of church and state, the end of spiritual authority in temporal affairs. In other words the passing of the old communism has given way to a "planned society" which uniquely combines capitalism, communism and individualism. Students of sociology, economics, politics and religion will greatly profit by acquaintance-ship with this book.

To date American historians have extended their activities to almost every phase of American civilization. One phase, however, they have singularly neglected, namely American legal history. But even this

aspect of our development now promises to be explored, for in January 1930 there was held in New York under the auspices of the American Historical Association a conference of historians and representative students of the law, a conference at which the possibilities of giving more attention to legal history were discussed at length. As a result a decision was reached to inaugurate a series of volumes embodying hitherto unpublished sources of American legal history, each volume to include suitable editorial matter to clarify the text and to suggest its bearings upon the development of political, economic and social, as well as strictly legal, institutions. Responsibility for the inauguration of this series of *American Legal Records* has been assumed by the Executive Council of the American Historical Association acting through its Committee on the Littleton-Griswold Fund. This fund was generously established by Mrs. Frank T. Griswold of Radnor, Pennsylvania. For the initial volume it was decided to select judicial records of the eighteenth century—a period even more seriously neglected than the earlier colonial era. The first volume *Proceedings of the Maryland Court of Appeals, 1695-1729* (American Historical Association, Washington, D.C. 1933. li, 673 pp.) is edited by Carroll T. Bond, Chief Judge of the Maryland Court of Appeals with the collaboration of Professor Richard B. Morris of the College of the City of New York. In an excellent introduction to the volume Judge Bond furnishes the background for court proceedings. The Provincial charter, the distribution of lands, the settlers of the province and their social and economic background, the courts of justice, the distribution of jurisdiction, the judges, the attorneys, law books, and court procedure constitute the frame work of this introduction. For the student of history the proceedings of the judicial tribunal here recorded indicates the process of applying the law of England to a new environment where the interests of the population were not always identical with those of Great Britain. The value of the volume is enhanced by a list of cases and a good index. C.

Students of American history will welcome the appearance of the *Letters to and from Caesar Rodney, 1756-1784* (published for the Historical Society of Delaware, by the University of Pennsylvania Press, 1933. vi, 482 pp.) Rodney was a member of the Stamp Act Congress and of the First and Second Continental Congresses, Speaker of the Delaware Colonial Assembly, President of the Delaware State, Major General of the Delaware Militia, and a signer of the Declaration of Independence. The man as well as the letters to and from him are therefore of genuine historical importance. The brief biographical sketch as well as the letters which comprise the greater part of the volume here reviewed is the work of George Herbert Ryden. Professor of History and Political Science in the University of Delaware, Dr. Ryden is also State archivist. Letters and portions of letters which are merely personal are omitted. The letters are arranged chronologically and are numbered consecutively. The volume also contains a note on Rodney's genealogy and a statement concerning sources.

R. V. Lennard contributes a new chapter on the history of the Anglo-Saxon conquests, to the autumn number of *History*.

The persecution of the intelligentsia by the Hitler government is the theme of Harrison Brown's article, "The Boomerang of Persecution" in the December *Fortnightly Review*.

Albert Brandt takes the same position in "Germany Rearms" in the January *Forum*: "With zeal equal to the period prior to 1914, but more furtively, Germany's rulers today are building up a war spirit and a war machine."

In estimating America's place in world affairs in the January *Forum*, John Strachey insists that it has meant little whether this country joined the League of Nations or not. Had she joined, the spheres of influence would simply have been delimited to suit Wall Street instead of Lombard Street and the Bourse. Last summer at the meeting of the Economic Conference, the world at large realised the immense change that had taken place in American liberalism between the fall of Wilson and the accession of Roosevelt, a change which the Americans themselves have not as yet sensed. The refusal of American capitalism to establish any basis of coöperation with the other capitalist empires simply means that there is no way out for the American capitalists except at the expense of their rivals. The breakdown of the conference indicates that the great capitalist empires are now in such desperate rivalry against one another that they are unable to bind themselves to refrain from any measures to promote their individual interests.

## Books on History and Government Published in the United States from December 16, 1933 to January 20, 1934

LISTED BY CHARLES A. COULOMB

### AMERICAN HISTORY

- Andrews, Mathew P. The Founding of Maryland. Balto.: Williams and Wilkins; 376 pp.; \$4.50.  
Barnes, Gilbert H. The anti-slavery impulse, 1830-1844. N.Y.: Appleton-Century; 307 pp.; \$3.50.  
Blanton, Wyndham B. Medicine in Virginia in the nineteenth century. Richmond, Va.: Garrett and Massie; 478 pp. (5 p. bibl.); \$7.50.  
Bloom, L. B. and Donnelly, T. C. New Mexico history and civics. Albuquerque: Univ. of New Mex. Press; 555 pp.; \$2.50.  
Christensen, Thomas P. The historic trail of the

- American Indians. Iowa City, Iowa; Author, 304 Ronalds St.; 193 pp.; \$2.00.  
Ecker, Grace D. A portrait of old Georgetown. [Maryland] Richmond, Va.; Garrett and Massie; 284 pp.; \$3.00.  
Engelhardt, Charles A. Mission San Luis Obispo in the valley of the Bears. Santa Barbara, Calif.; Author, Mission Santa Barbara; 223 pp.; \$2.00.  
Flanders, Ralph B. Plantation slavery in Georgia. Chapel Hill, N.C.; Univ. of N.C.; 336 pp. (18 p. bibl.); \$3.50.  
Hamm, W. A., and Durfee, M. K. A student's guide to American history. Boston: Heath; 156 pp.; 48c.  
Hoffman, Lola B. California beginnings. San Francisco: Harr Wagner; 235 pp.; \$1.50.  
Holand, Hjalmar R. Wisconsin's Belgian community. Ephraim Co., Wis.: Door County Hist. Soc.; 105 pp.; \$1.50.  
Konwiser, Harry M. The Texas Republic postal system. N.Y.: H. L. Lindquist, 100 Sixth Ave.; 72 pp.; \$1.50.  
Larpenteur, Charles. Forty years a fur trader on the upper Mississippi, 1835-1872. Chicago, Lakeside Press; 411 pp.; privately printed.  
Miller, Perry G. E. Orthodoxy in Massachusetts 1630-1650. Cambridge: Harvard Univ. Press; 369 pp.; \$3.50.  
Phillips, Wilbur H. Oberlin Colony, the story of a century. [History of Oberlin, Ohio] Oberlin, Ohio: Oberlin Pr.; 328 pp.; \$2.50.  
Rainey, George. The Cherokee Strip. Enid, Okla.: Author, Box 795; 514 pp.; \$3.00.  
Reusch, Hero E. and others. Historic spots in California. Stanford Univ., Calif.: Stanford Univ. Press; 620 pp.; \$3.75.  
Shalloo, J. P. Private police with special reference to Pennsylvania. Phila.: Amer. Acad. Pol. & Soc. Science; 233 pp. (6 p. bibl.); \$2.50.  
Terrell, Alexander W. From Texas to Mexico and the court of Maximilian in 1865. Dallas, Tex.; Book Club of Dallas; \$6.00.

### ANCIENT HISTORY

- Shipley, Frederick W. Agrippa's building activities in Rome. St. Louis: Washington Univ. Press; 97 pp.; \$1.25.

### ENGLISH HISTORY

- Leeds, E. T. Celtic ornaments in the British Isles down to A.D. 700. N.Y.: Oxford; 189 pp.; \$5.00.  
Manning, Helen T. British colonial government after the American Revolution, 1782-1820. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press; 580 pp. (7 p. bibl.); \$4.00.  
White, Albert B. Self-government at the king's command; a study in the beginnings of English democ-

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racy. Minneapolis: Univ. of Minn. Press; 130 pp.; \$2.50.

#### EUROPEAN HISTORY

Croce, Benedetto. History of Europe in the nineteenth century. N.Y.: Harcourt; 375 pp.; \$3.50.

Dean, Vera Micheles. Soviet Russia, 1917-1933. Boston: World Peace Foundation; 40 pp.; 25c.

#### THE WORLD WAR AND RECONSTRUCTION

Corday, Michel. The Paris front; an unpublished diary, 1914-1918. N.Y.: Dutton; 395 pp.; \$5.00.

#### MEDIEVAL HISTORY

Mott, G. E. and Dee, H. M. An outline history of the Middle Ages. N.Y.: Barnes & Noble; 260 pp.; 75c.

#### MISCELLANEOUS

Browne, Laurence E. The eclipse of christianity in Asia, from the time of Mohammed till the fourteenth century. N.Y.: Macmillan; 198 pp. (5 p. bibl.); \$3.50.

Haebler, Konrad. The study of incunabula. N.Y.: Gwlier Club; 257 pp.; \$15.00.

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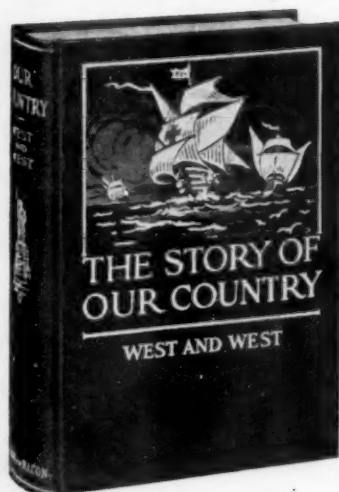
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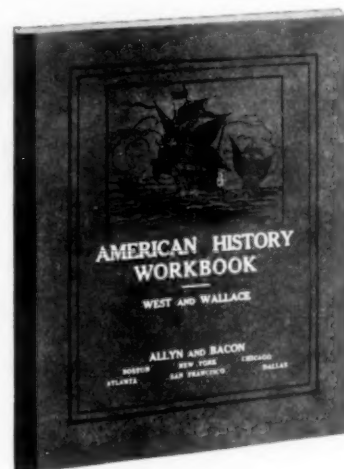
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